



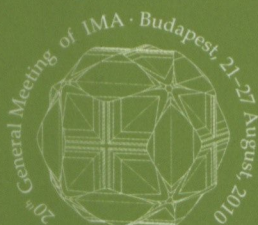
# ACTA

## MINERALOGICA-PETROGRAPHICA

### FIELD GUIDE SERIES

**Volume 23**

**Szeged, 2010**



GHEORGHE ILINCA

**Classic skarn localities of Romania: Contact metamorphism and mineralisation related to Late Cretaceous magmatism**

**IMA2010 FIELD TRIP GUIDE RO5**



XC 63008



**FIELD GUIDE SERIES**

HU ISSN 0324-6523  
HU ISSN 2061-9766

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This volume was published for the  
375<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the  
Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest.



The publication was co-sponsored by the  
Eötvös University Press Ltd., Budapest.

IMA2010 ([www.ima2010.hu](http://www.ima2010.hu)) is organised in the frame of the ELTE375 scientific celebration activities.

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The Acta Mineralogica-Petrographica is published by the Department of Mineralogy, Geochemistry and Petrology,  
University of Szeged, Szeged, Hungary

© Department of Mineralogy, Geochemistry and Petrology, University of Szeged  
ISBN 978-963-306-055-1



**HELYBEN  
OLVASHATÓ**

# Classic skarn localities of Romania: Contact metamorphism and mineralization related to Late Cretaceous magmatism

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## 1. Introduction to the geology and mineral deposits of the area visited

The aim of this trip is to observe skarn and mineralization occurrences related to the thermal metamorphic and metasomatic areas around a series of Late Cretaceous-Eocene magmatic massifs, known under the collective term of “banatites”. These igneous rocks have been recognized since the 19<sup>th</sup> century, when Bernhard von Cotta (1864) was the first to describe a suite of consanguineous magmatic rocks occurring as either shallow intrusions or subvolcanic bodies, not older than Cretaceous sedimentary formations, yet younger than the “basalts”. The name “banatites”, firstly used by Cotta, reflects their *locus typicus*, that is, Banat region, covering parts of the south-western Romania and eastern Serbia. The same author wrote about the mineral and textural diversity of banatites, about the extensive contact metamorphism taking place in their aureoles and about the inherent difficulties of their classification.

Owing to its geographical determination, the term “banatites” has been preserved and extensively used, mostly for its meaning as a petrological province, rather than for depicting a rock typology (e.g. Codarcea, 1931; Giușcă *et al.*, 1965, 1966; Cioflica & Vlad, 1973b, 1977; Giușcă, 1974; Rădulescu & Dimitrescu, 1982; Ștefan *et al.*, 1985 *etc.*). Other authors preferred time-related terms such as “Laramian” (Cioflica & Vlad, 1973b, 1977), “Late Cretaceous” or “Late Cretaceous-Early Tertiary” magmatites (e.g. Bocaletti *et al.*, 1978; Cioflica *et al.*, 1997; Downes *et al.*, 1995b), or involved a geotectonic and geographic significance: “Banat-Srednogie belt” or “rift” (Popov, 1981, 1987), “Banatitic Magmatic and

Metallogenic Belt – BMMB” (Berza *et al.* 1998) or “Apuseni-Banat-Timok-Srednogie Belt – ABTS” (Popov *et al.*, 2000). For the purposes of this guide – dealing both with the primary magmatic products and with their connected contact metamorphism counterparts: skarns, ore deposits, hydrothermal alterations – the banatites will be hereafter referred to, according to Berza *et al.* (1998).

Ever since their first description by Cotta, in 1864, but especially during the last few decades, banatites have drawn considerable interest in their petrology, age, structural-tectonic significance, as well as their related skarn, porphyry-copper and hydrothermal ore deposits.

The itinerary of this trip includes almost the entire north-south extension of the BMMB in Romania. The belt intersects numerous and extremely diverse regional types of sedimentary and metamorphic formations (Figs. 1 and 2). Therefore, in this introductory part, with the exception of a very brief presentation of the overall geology of Romania, only the general features of the banatites, skarns and related mineralization will be described. Other facets of surrounding geologies will be dealt with separately, for each field stop.

### 1.1 Overview of the geological setting of banatites

#### 1.1.1 General features

The geology of Romania (Fig. 2), at least in what concerns the outcropping formations, is dominated by the Carpathian chain and the Apuseni Mountains, separated from the former by the

<sup>1</sup> Most probably the “basalts” quoted by von Cotta are those from Lucareț, Șanovița and Gătaia (see section below). For the first two occurrences, Downes *et al.* (1995a) established an age between 2.52 and 2.64 Ma, i.e., Upper Pliocene.



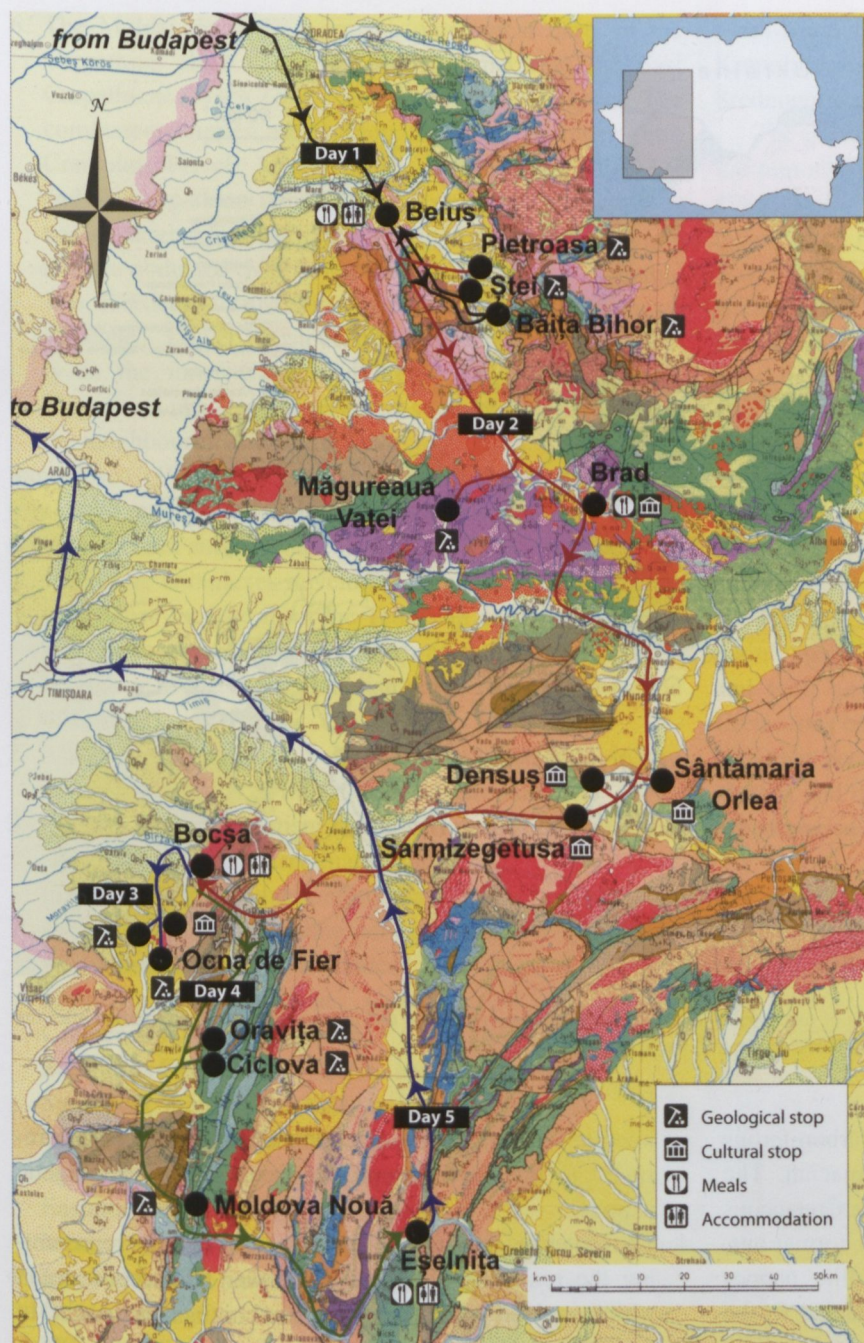


Fig. 1. Fragment of the geological map of Romania (Săndulescu *et al.*, 1978) with the RO5 field trip route following the north-south extension of the Banatic Magmatic and Metallogenetic Belt.

Transylvanian Basin. The foreland of the orogenic areas includes the Moesian, East European and Scythian platforms, as well as the North Dobrogea orogen. The geological history is extremely complex, with rocks ranging in age from Precambrian to Neogene, and bearing signs of multiple and often superimposed generations of Mesozoic and Cenozoic (e.g. Zimmermann *et al.*, 2008). These events resulted in an extremely complicated pattern of nappe structures, large regional metamorphic belts, significant areas with Mesozoic and Cenozoic magmatites and a wide range of sedimentary

formations. The Romanian portion of the Carpathian chain form a Z-like thrust and fold belt, curved from N-S to E-W and enclosing the Apuseni Mountains outcrop. The chain gained the present form during the Alpine orogeny as a result of Cretaceous-Cenozoic convergence and collision between the European and Apulian (African) plates, which caused the suture of the Tethys and other oceans (Săndulescu & Visarion, 2000; Dupont *et al.*, 2002).

Overall collision movements were directed eastwards in the Eastern Carpathians (Săndulescu, 1984), and to the south and east in the Southern Carpathians, respectively (Berza *et al.*, 1998), and involved significant remnants of ocean crust and strongly deformed continental margins. Large post-tectogenic covers develop above the deformed units of the inner orogenic zones in Upper Cretaceous and/or Paleogene. The Transylvanian and Pannonian basins are two Neogene molassic depressions which overlie important parts of the inner zones and their post-tectonic covers. The outer margins of the Carpathian orogen are covered by an elongated Neogene molassic foredeep. Important subduction processes developed in Upper Cretaceous-Paleocene and in Neogene, resulted in two calc-alkaline magmatic arcs (Săndulescu, 1994).

The overall tectonics and geodynamic features of the Carpathian chain in relation with the Apuseni Mountains and their foredeeps and forelands have been described by Săndulescu (1984, 1994), under a concept centred over a so-called Main Tethyan Suture Zone (MTSZ), which represents a relic feature of the Tethys oceanic crust. The MTSZ connects the Vardar Zone with the Pieniny Klippen belt, located in the north-west and representing a part of the larger Piemont Ocean. The author divided the entire orogenic chain into several tectonic units comprising

complex paleogeographical features and nappe structures. Some of these units will be referred thereafter and their terminology will be later used in explaining the geotectonic setting of the BMMB. Starting from the inner most parts of the Carpathian-Apuseni orogen, these units are as follows:

1. The Inner Dacides (ID) – correspond to parts of the Foreapulian block and are located to the west and north of the MTSZ. They consist of a north and northeast vergent nappe system outcropping in the north part of the Apuseni Mts. (Northern Apusenides). The unit comprises metamorphic rocks and granites overlain by a succession of



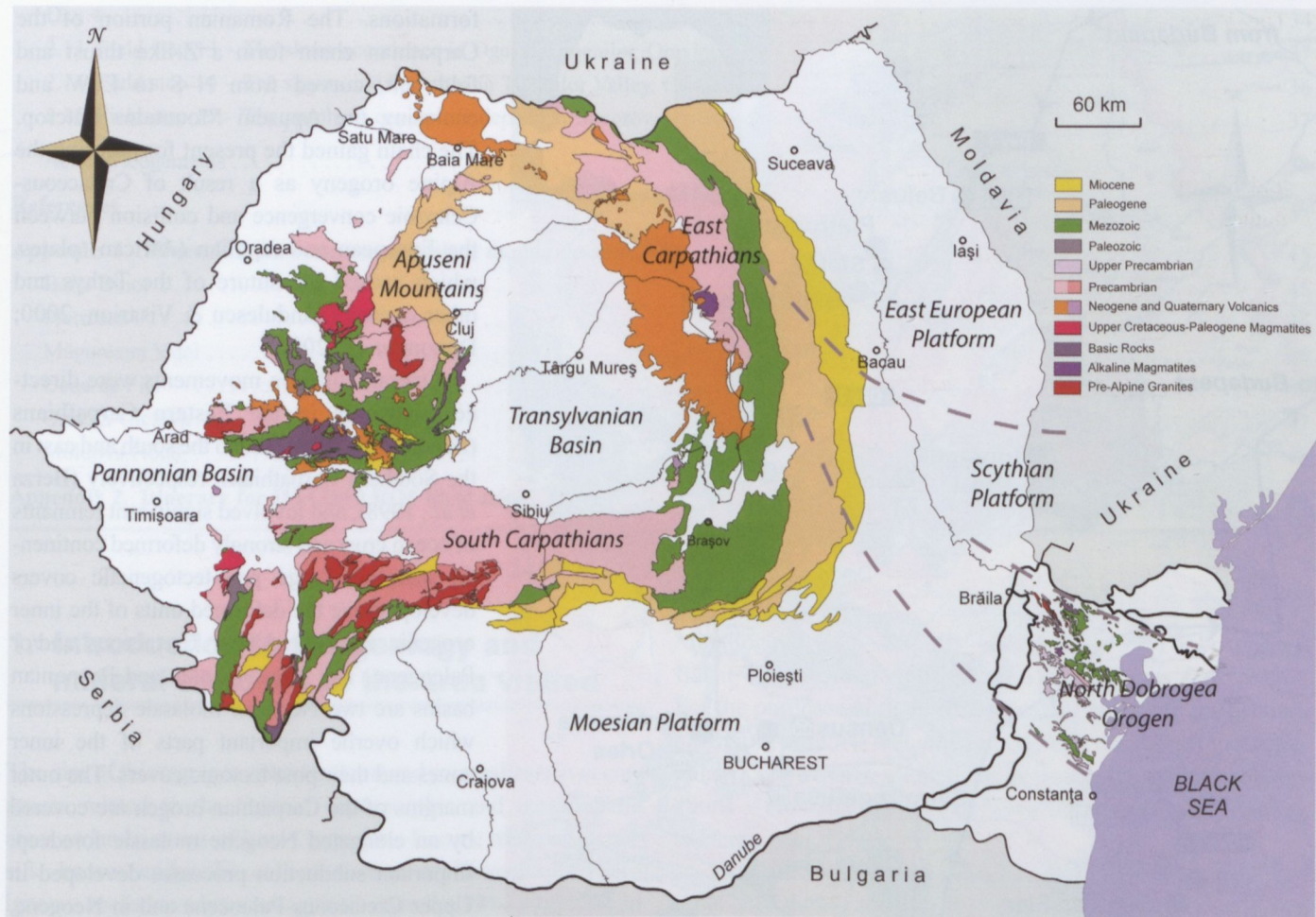


Fig. 2. The geological map of Romania with the main groups of outcropping formations and the major tectonic and physiographic units (modified after the scalable map compiled by the Geological Institute of Romania based on Săndulescu *et al.*, 1978).

sedimentary formations ranging from Upper Carboniferous and Permian to Lower Triassic and pre-Coniacian. The post tectonic cover is represented by Upper Cretaceous deposits and sparse Paleogene epicontinental formations.

2. The Transylvanides – consist of two ophiolite nappes occurring in the Southern Apuseni Mts. obducted to the north-west, over the ID of the Northern Apuseni Mts. and to the east over the basement nappes of the central Eastern Carpathians, respectively. Thus, the Transylvanides are the upper most nappe structures in the Apuseni Mts. and in the Eastern Carpathians. To avoid confusion among the two nappes, some authors prefer the term Mureș Zone to designate the Transylvanides from the Apuseni Mts. (e.g. Ionescu *et al.*, 2009; Hoeck *et al.*, 2009). These authors regard the Mesozoic ophiolites and related rocks occurring on top of the Eastern Carpathians as not being related to the Jurassic Mureș Zone.
3. The Median Dacides (MD) – occupy the opposite side of the MTSZ with respect to the ID. The MD outcrop in the central part of the Eastern Carpathians and over large areas of the Southern Carpathians. They consist of basement-shearing nappes with crystalline formations and sed-

imentary covers. In the Southern Carpathians they correspond to the Getic Nappe overthrust by the Supragetic nappes.

4. The Outer Dacides (OD) – group a strip of units representing the remnants of a Jurassic-Lower Cretaceous ocean which evolved within the European continental margin. In the Eastern Carpathians the OD correspond to the Black Flysch, Baraolt and Ceahlău nappes, whereas in the Southern Carpathians, they form the Severin Nappe which is trapped between the MD (Getic Nappe) and the Marginal Dacides (Danubicum – see below). This paleorift is also known as the Severin Ocean (e.g. Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002) – recognized to include Măgura, Ceahlău, Severin, Krajina and Trojan nappes and represents a satellite suture with respect to the MTSZ.
5. The Marginal Dacides (MAD) – or Danubicum, occur as a large half-window underneath the Getic and Severin nappes. They mainly consist of crystalline formations (Precambrian mesometamorphic rocks with numerous granite to diorite intrusions of Late Precambrian and Early Cambrian age) and a sedimentary cover with Permian molasse and Mesozoic carbonate formations.



6. The Moldavides (M) – are the outer most units of the Carpathian chain. They cover major parts of the East Carpathians Flysch Zone, excepting of the OD nappes. The component nappes are – from the inner to outer side: Convolute Flysch, Macla, Audia, Tarcău, Marginal Folds and Subcarpathian nappes. They consist of allochthonous bodies ranging Lower Cretaceous up to the Lower Miocene and are obducted over foreland areas.
7. The foredeep formations consist of Upper Miocene – Pliocene – Lower Pleistocene molasses originating entirely in the inner Carpathian areas. They outborder the Carpathian chain to the east and south and cover parts of the neighbouring platforms.

Săndulescu (1994) has summarized also the Mesozoic and Cenozoic magmatic activity which took place in the Carpathian area and in Apuseni Mts.:

1. Ophiolitic complexes developed between Middle Triassic and Upper Jurassic from the Tethysian oceanic crust (still preserved in the Transylvanides), and Jurassic ophiolites occurring in the Outer Dacidian paleorift (Severin Nappe of the OD).
2. Alkaline magmatism of Jurassic age developed in the extending margins of the Outer Dacidian paleorift.
3. Calc-alkaline magmatism developed during the compressive stages of the Carpathians, and in relation with subduction processes. Two main calc-alkaline periods were documented: a) “Banatites” – predominantly intrusive, Upper Cretaceous–Paleocene, in the Southern Carpathians (Getic and Supragetic areas of the MD) and in the ID parts of Apuseni Mts., and b) Neogene volcanics, occurring in the Eastern Carpathians and Apuseni Mts.
4. Intracontinental basalts of Pliocene–Quaternary age (in Perșani Mts. and Mureș Valley), in connection with deep (transcrustal) faults

### 1.1.2 The regional extension of BMMB

The BMMB represents a series of discontinuous magmatic and metallogenic districts that are discordant over the mid-Cretaceous nappe structures (Cioflica & Vlad, 1973; Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002). The belt extends over approximately 900 km in length and around 30 to 70 km in width. It has a north-east to south-west trend over Apuseni Mts. and Southern Carpathians, it aligns to a

north-south direction over eastern Serbia (Timok and Ridanji-Krepoljin zones), and bends widely to the east, through the Srednogie area, reaching the shores of the Black Sea (Fig. 3).

The northern most occurrences are in Apuseni Mts., with the plutonic-volcanic Vlădeasa massif (Istrate, 1978; Ștefan, 1980; Ștefan *et al.*, 1992) and numerous small apexes and dykes, often rooted in large and deep plutonic bodies (Andrei *et al.*, 1989), spread over large areas at Cornișel-Borod, Gilău, Budureasa, Pietroasa, Băișoara, Valea Seacă, Băița Bihor, Brusturi, Căzănești, Măgureaua Vaței, (Fig. 4) and intersecting pre-Alpine basement and Mesozoic formations of the Mid-Cretaceous nappe structures (Berza *et al.*, 1998). Apart from prevalent andesites, dacites, ignimbritic rhyolites and banded biotite-bearing rhyolites of the Vlădeasa “taphrolite” (Giușcă, 1950), granodiorite-granite intrusions are predominant among other occurrences in the Apuseni Mts., with subordinate quartz monzodiorites and quartz diorites (Ștefan *et al.*, 1992).

South of Mureș Valley, the belt continues with swarms of mainly intrusive, small magmatic bodies and larger intrusions, and with only sparse volcanic formations as those in the Cretaceous basins of the Poiana Ruscă Mts.

Other occurrences consisting of dioritic and granodioritic plutons and dyke swarms of andesites, dacites and rhyolites, accompanied by lamprophyric dykes are those at Tincova and

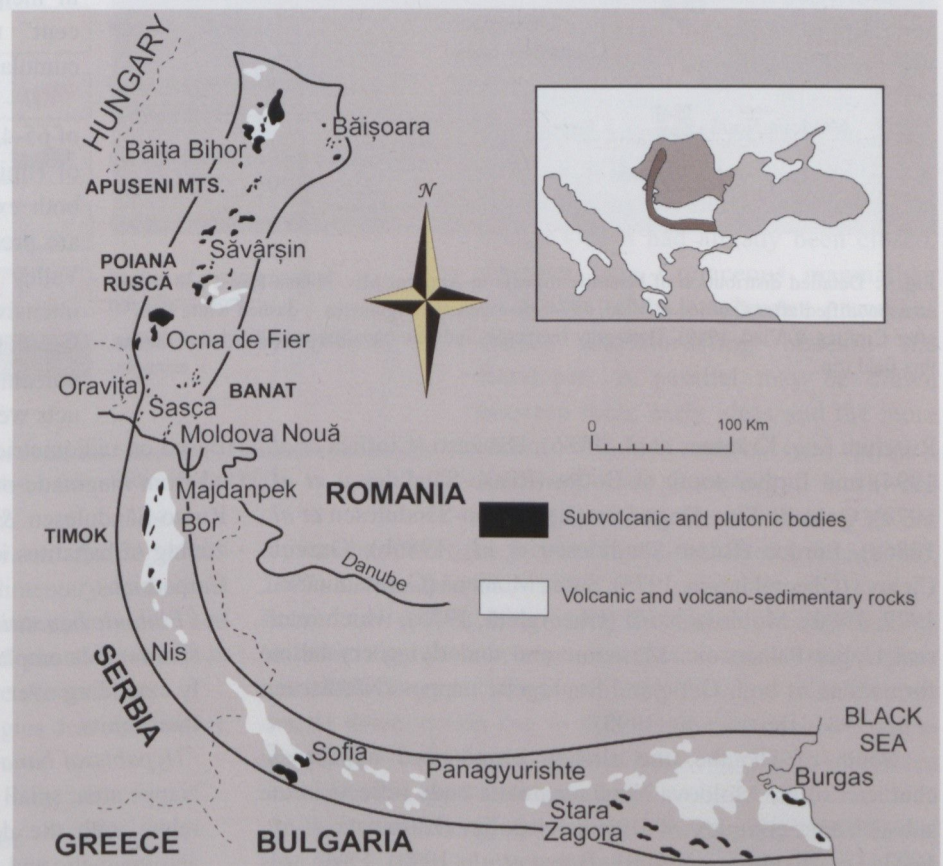


Fig. 3. The extension of the Banatitic Magmatic and Metallogenic Belt over Romania, Eastern Serbia and Bulgaria (with dark gray in the inset and with heavy outline in the map). Simplified after Cioflica & Vlad (1973). A more detailed distribution of the banatite massifs in Romania is given in Fig. 4.



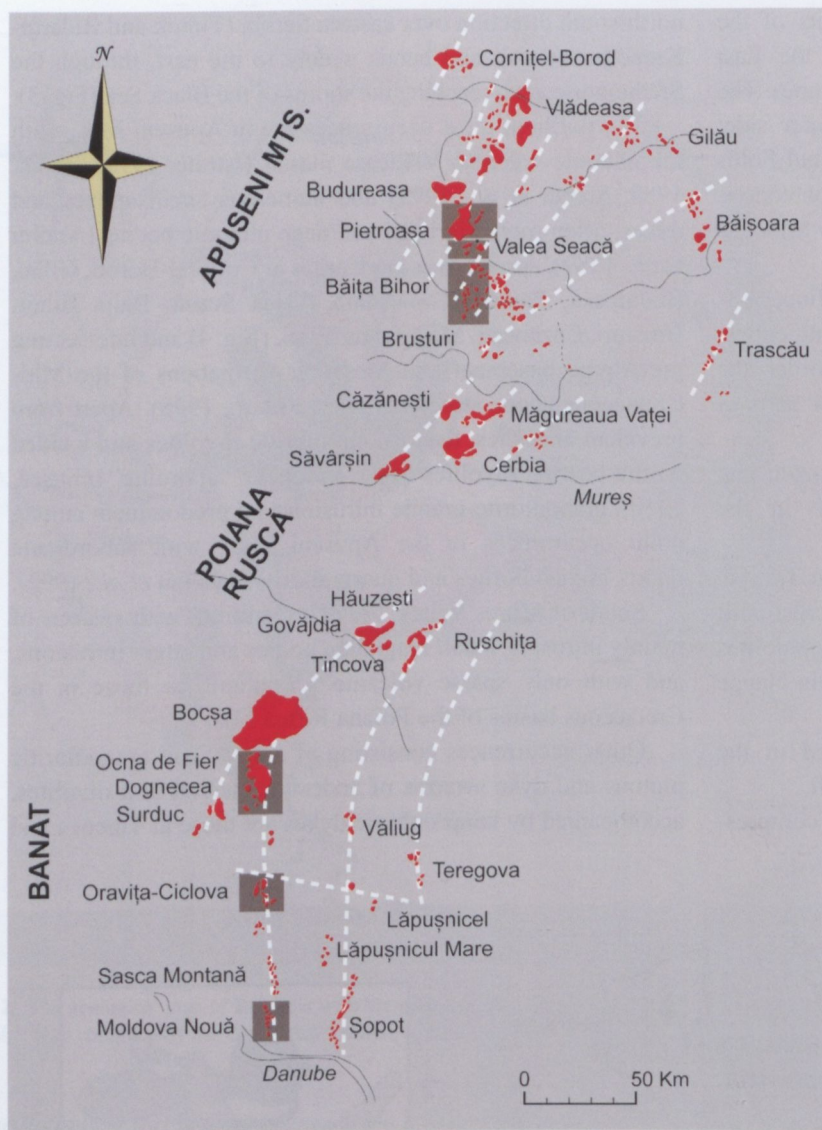


Fig. 4. Detailed distribution of banatitic massifs in Apuseni Mts, Poiana Ruscă and Banat area (modified after Cioflica & Vlad, 1974; petrogenetic alignments – dashed white lines – after Cioflica & Vlad, 1980). Dark gray rectangles indicate banatitic massifs visited during this field trip.

Ruschița (e.g. Kräutner *et al.*, 1986), Hăuzești (Cioflica *et al.*, 1994) and further south at Bocșa (Russo-Săndulescu *et al.*, 1978), Ocna de Fier–Dognecea (e.g. Russo-Săndulescu *et al.*, 1986a), Surduc (Russo-Săndulescu *et al.*, 1986b), Oravița-Ciclova (Gheorghiescu, 1975), Sasca Montană (Constantinescu, 1977, 1980), Moldova Nouă (Gheorghită, 1975), which intersect Upper Palaeozoic, Mesozoic and underlying crystalline formations of both Getic and Supragetic nappes (Năstăseanu *et al.*, 1981, Berza *et al.*, 1998).

South of Danube, the already pronounced hypabyssic character of the Moldova Nouă magmatic body reflects in the sub-volcanic complex of Ridanj-Krepoljin (Karamata *et al.*, 1997; Djordjević *et al.*, 1997, Berza *et al.*, 1998). Eastwards of the plutons described above, banatites occur as dyke swarms and small plutons of porphyritic quartz diorite, monzodiorite or granodiorite, lamprophyres and andesites, at

Văliug, Teregova, Lăpușnicu Mare and Șopot (Gunnesch *et al.*, 1975, 1978; Întorsureanu, 1986; Cioflica *et al.*, 1991, 1993). Such hypabyssic bodies cross crystalline schists of the Getic Nappe basement or Cenomanian-Middle Campanian formations (Năstăseanu *et al.*, 1981). South of the Danube, this zone extends into the volcanic and intrusive complex of the Timok area (Djordjević *et al.*, 1997; Karamata *et al.*, 1997). Attempts were made to ascribe such apparently randomly distributed occurrences to several alignments or magmatic trends, with NE–SW orientation (Giușcă *et al.*, 1966, Vlad, 1979, Cioflica & Vlad, 1980), (Fig. 4), but they sometimes do not coincide with the trend of larger plutons beneath (Figs. 5 and 6).

The banatites from the south-western part of the Southern Carpathians were ascribed to two main magmatic stages, with strongly distinct petrological characters (Russo-Săndulescu *et al.*, 1984):

*A – Coniacian-Maastrichtian stage* (K-Ar radiometric ages between 87 and 68 Ma) represented by polyphasic plutons with evidence for the existence of intermediate magma chambers in incipient extensional, yet relatively “quiescent” tectonic regime (gabbros with initial cumulate crystallization).

*B – Maastrichtian-Eocene stage* (K-Ar ages of 65–42 Ma) well embodied in the northern side of Timiș Valley, in the Poiana Ruscă Mts., where both extrusive and intrusive magmatic outputs are preserved. A large area between the Timiș Valley and the Danube gives evidence for an intensive intrusive activity which apparently lasted for a large period of time. Presumably, volcanism here was either absent or all its products were eroded.

Based on radiometric dating and petrological features collected from magmatic outcrops, boreholes and geophysical data, Russo-Săndulescu & Berza (1979) suggested the following zoning of banatites in the south-western part of the Southern Carpathians

- “Plutonic banatitic zone” (PBZ) with two maxima of intrusive magma emplacement in stages A and B, predominantly extending over the Supragetic nappes or slightly beyond their limits.
- “Hypabissal banatitic zone” (HBZ) restricted to the Getic Nappe area; small banatitic intrusions generally do not correlate with the deep plutonic distribution inferred from aeromagnetic and gravimetric data (Andrei *et al.*, 1989). K-Ar ages and the relationships with sedimentary formation of Șopot zone, indicate that these magmatites correspond to the B stage.



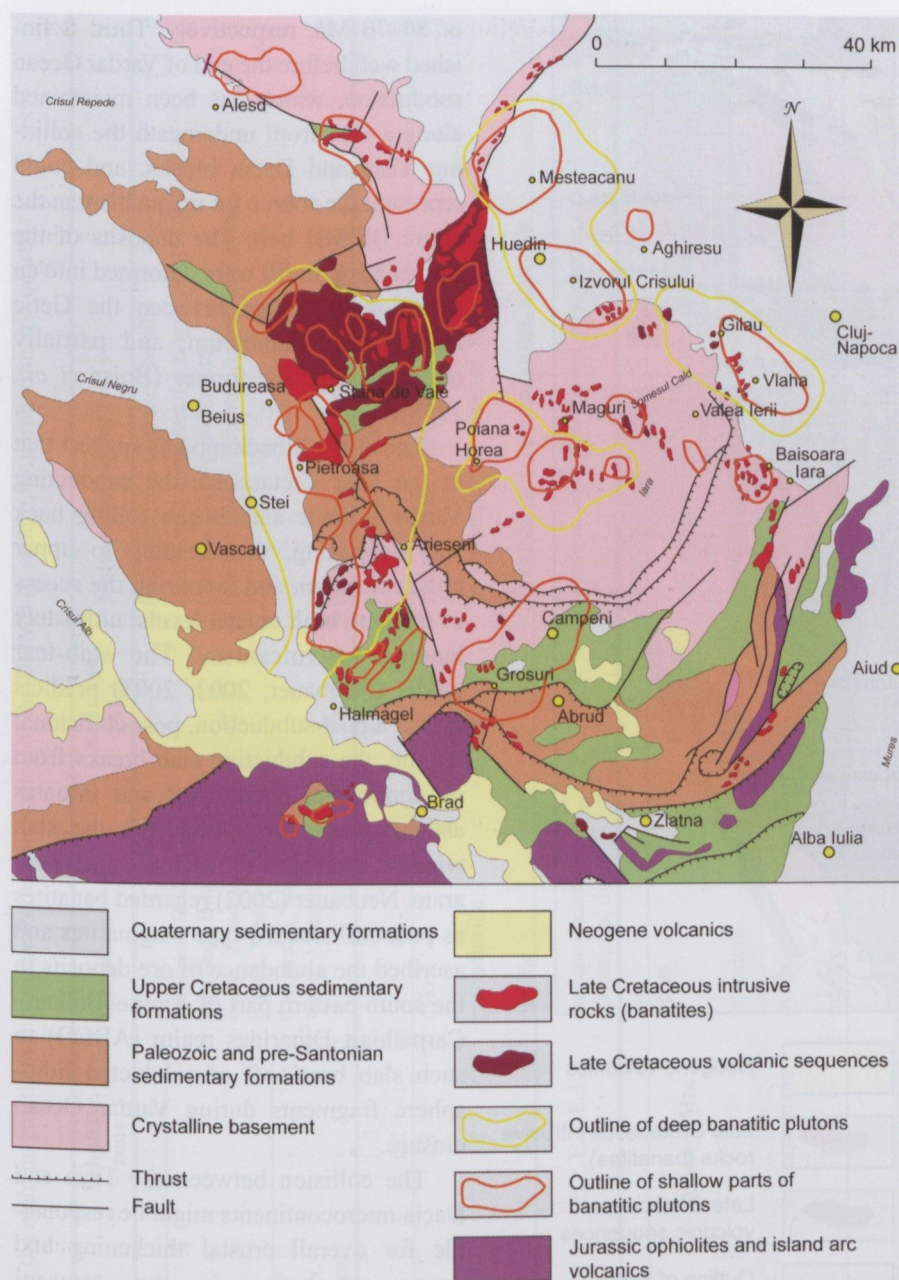


Fig. 5. Simplified map of the Apuseni Mts. with the in-depth development of banatitic plutons, interpreted from aeromagnetic and gravimetric data (redrawn from Andrei *et al.*, 1989).

– “Volcano-plutonic complex of Poiana Ruscă Mts.” (VPCPR) corresponds to volcano-sedimentary formations in the Rusca Montană basin. Large intrusive bodies and dykes intersect these formations and post-Maastrichtian tectonic contacts (e.g. Tincova) may be observed, too.

A synoptical view of the banatite typologies described above is given in Table 1.

### 1.1.3 Geodynamic setting of banatites

Numerous models have been published in the last decades to explain the formation and the geodynamic significance of the BMMB. Although several mechanisms involving rifting

processes have been proposed (e.g. Popov 1981, 1987, 1995 and other references quoted by Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002), subduction models have been almost unanimously invoked in relation to the two major ocean sutures within the Carpathian-Balkan orogen: the Vardar Ocean with its Mureş Zone and Transylvanian extensions, and the Severin Ocean with remnants preserved in Măgura, Ceahlău, Severin and Trojan nappes (Fig. 7). However, major disagreement exists among these models, especially in what concerns the direction and timing of subduction.

Comprehensive overviews of such subduction related models are given by Berza *et al.* (1998), Ciobanu *et al.* (2002) and Zimmermann *et al.* (2008). Westward subduction of ocean remnants in the Transylvanian Basin has been invoked for banatites occurring in the ID (North Apuseni Mts. – e.g. Rădulescu & Săndulescu 1973, Rădulescu *et al.*, 1993 a.o.). An eastward subduction of the Severin Ocean crust has been used to explain banatite formation in the west part of Southern Carpathians (Rădulescu & Săndulescu, 1973; Bleahu, 1976; Russo-Săndulescu & Berza, 1979; Vlad, 1997 *etc.*). Boccaletti *et al.* (1974) suggested that by the Early Cretaceous, the Vardar Ocean had already been closed, whereas Late Cretaceous magmatism relates to slab-detachment processes during underthrusting beneath the Rhodopes. A parallel may be drawn between these early ideas and the more recent slab-tear model (see below). Eastward and concomitant northward subduction of ocean crust during Vardar

closure has also been proposed (e.g. Janković & Jelenković, 1997; Karamata *et al.*, 1999).

Berza *et al.* (1998) were among the first to consider that the banatitic magmas were generated in an extensional regime caused by orogenic collapse affecting the upper crust, through mantle delamination due to slab break-off during the northwards directed Vardar-Axios Ocean subduction between Jurassic and Lower Cretaceous.

By the beginning of this century, ideas of BMMB formation and evolution were dominated by subduction models involving either slab-rollback or slab-tear mechanisms affecting the subduction front of the Vardar Ocean (Zimmermann *et al.*, 2008 and references therein).



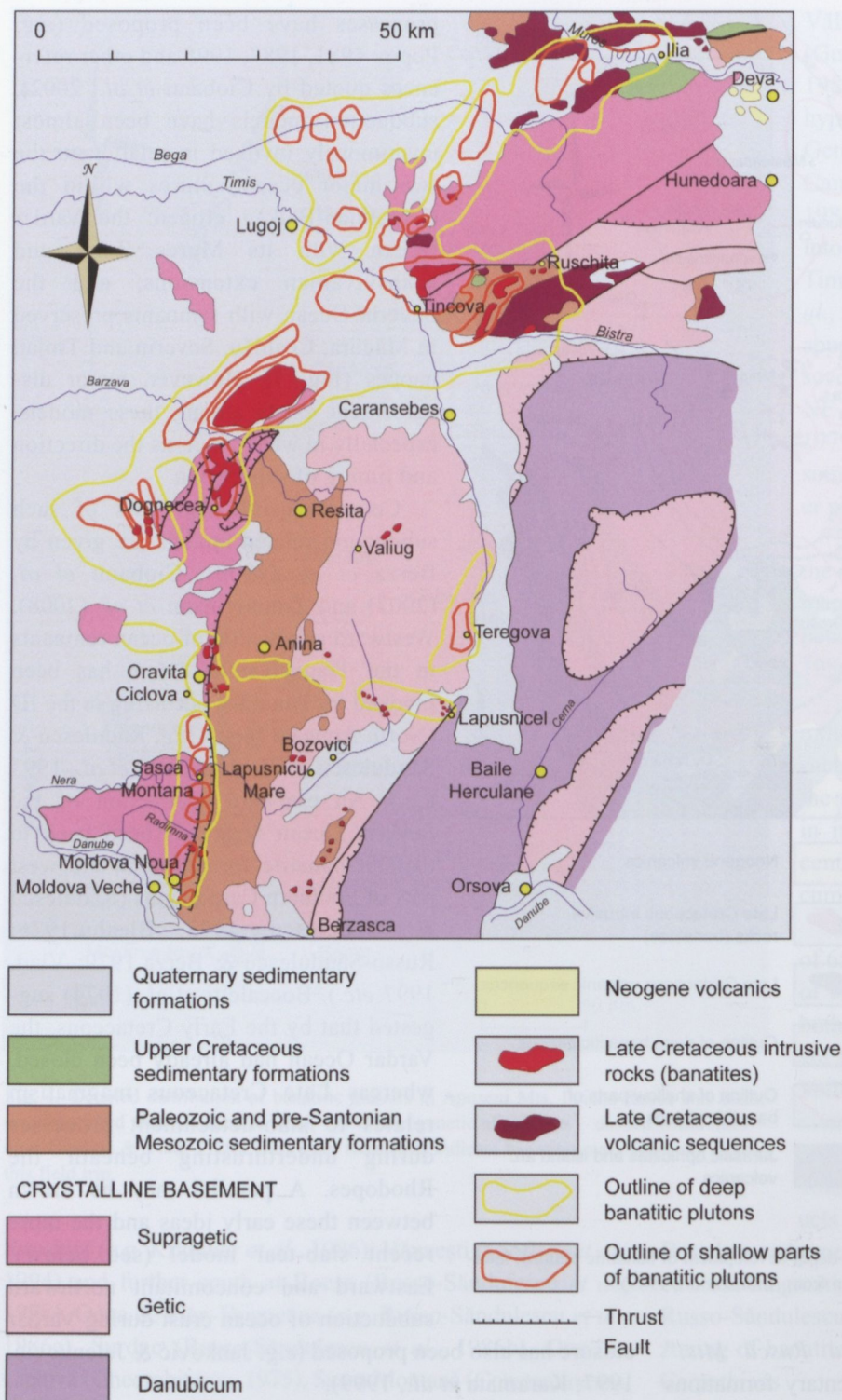


Fig. 6. Simplified map of the south-western part of Southern Carpathians, showing the in-depth distribution of banatite intrusions, interpreted from aeromagnetic and gravimetric data (redrawn from Andrei *et al.*, 1989).

The role of the Severin Ocean in generating subduction related magmatism within the Getic Nappe started to be seen as minor. Based on kinematic and paleomagnetic data collected in the Apuseni Mts. and Southern Carpathians, Bojar *et al.* (1998) and later, Willingshofer (2000) suggested the subduction of the Severin Ocean crust to have terminated around 120

or 80–70 Ma, respectively. Thus, it finished well before the end of Vardar Ocean subduction, which has been maintained along a vast front underneath the colliding Tisia and Dacia blocks, and could represent the source for magmatism in the entire BMMB belt. The deposits of the former Severin rift were deformed into an accretionary wedge between the Getic Nappe and Danubicum, and partially overridden by the former (Bojar *et al.*, 1998).

The slab-rollback models suggest that in the Late Cretaceous, the subducting Vardar oceanic slab began rolling back and steepening, thus leading to upper crust extension, and favouring the access of melts to high crustal levels, ultimately leading to volcanism. The slab-tear model (Neubauer, 2002, 2003) predicts that in a post-subduction, post-collisional regime, the subducting slab breaks from its continental counterpart and initiates asthenospheric upwelling into the slab window created as the tectonic units separate. Neubauer (2002) regarded banatites as post-collisional I-type magmatites and ascribed the abundance of ore deposits in the south-eastern part of Alpine–Balkan–Carpathian–Dinarides realm (ABCD) to such slab break-off of subducted lithosphere fragments during Vardar Ocean closure.

The collision between the Tisia and Dacia microcontinents might be responsible for overall crustal thickening and nappe structuring in the Apuseni Mountains and Southern Carpathians followed by gravitational collapse and formation of collapse Gosau-type basins such as Rusca Montană, Hațeg, Arieș and Borod (*e.g.* Schuller *et al.*, 2009). Newly formed extensional faults could have facilitated magma upwelling in the close vicinity of such basins. (Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002 and references therein).

Paleomagnetic data for banatites occurring both in the Apuseni Mts. and in the Southern Carpathians (Pătrașcu *et al.*, 1992, 1994; Panaiotu 1998; Roșu *et al.*, 2004) indicate clockwise rotations of up to 60–80° with respect to the initial east-west trend at the time of emplacement and before the Cenozoic post-collisional movements which affected Tisia and Dacia blocks (Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002 and references therein).



**Table 1.** The succession and timing of the main magmatic events in the Romanian portion of the BMMB ( $\mu$  -micro,  $\pi$ - porphyritic, q – quartz)

Unit	Age	Magmatic event (phase, cycle)	Subphase, zone	Intrusions	K-Ar age (Ma)	Main petrographic types
Apuseni Mts. (Ștefan <i>et al.</i> , 1988)	Upper Ypresian	"Final" cycle			–	lamprophyres, andesites, basalts
	Upper Danian Lower Ypresian	Cycle II ( <i>subvolcanic/ plutonic bodies, dykes</i> )		Vlădeasa, Budureasa, Pietroasa, Bihor, Gilău, Trascău, Borod, Meseș – Valea Chioarului, Măgureaua Vaței, Almașu Mic	47–51	rhyolites, q-andesites, ( $\mu, \pi$ )-granites ( $\pm$ alkaline), granites, ( $\mu, \pi$ )-granodiorites, ( $\mu, \pi$ )q-diorites, gabbros, (q-)monzodiorites
	Upper Maastrichtian Lower Danian	Cycle I ( <i>lavas, pyroclastics, shallow subvolcanics</i> )			–	rhyolites, andesites, dacites, rhyodacites
Poiana Ruscă  Kräutner <i>et al.</i> , 1986)	Lutetian	Lamprophyric cycle (L)	L.2 L.1		43 $\pm$ 2 –	calc-alkaline/alkaline lamprophyres
			I.3	dykes	54 $\pm$ 2	andesites, rhyolites, dacites
	Thanetian Danian	Intrusive cycle (I)	I.2 I.1	granodioritic dioritic	64 $\pm$ 2 –	( $\pi$ )-granodiorites, granites, monzodiorites, aplites $\mu$ diorites, ( $\mu, \pi$ )-monzodiorites, andesites
	Upper Maastrichtian Danian	Extrusive cycle (E)	E.1, E.2, E.3	volcano-sedimentary formations, dykes	65 $\pm$ 2	rhyolites, andesites, dacites, rhyodacites
Apuseni Mts. and Banat  (Cioflica <i>et al.</i> , 1992)	Lower Eocene	Stage 4		dykes	43	lamprophyres
	Paleocene	Stage 3	Apuseni Mts.  S. Carpathians	intrusions dykes intrusions	65–70	rhyolites, rhyodacites, aplites, $\mu\pi$ -granites, ( $\mu, \pi$ )-diorites, dacites, (m,p)-granodiorites, andesites, basalts; granodiorites, monzodiorites, ( $\mu$ )-granites, aplites; ( $\mu$ ) $\pi$ -monzodiorites, $\pi\mu$ -diorites, andesites, $\mu\pi$ -granites, aplites; (q-)monzodiorites, (q-)diorites, granodiorites, granites, aplites
	Upper Maastrichtian Lower Paleocene	Stage 2			–	andesites, rhyolites, dacites
	Coniacian Maastrichtian	Stage 1			67–87	gabbros, monzodiorites, q-monzonites, syenites
		B.III	HBZ PBZ	post-intrusive dykes	–	rhyolitic-granophyres, andesites
Banat  (Russo- Săndulescu, 1993)	Maastrichtian- Paleogene	B.II	HBZ	Lăpușnicu Mare, Purcariu-Nasovăț, Teregova	45–65	$\pi$ q-monzodiorites, $\pi$ -granodiorites
			PBZ	Sasca-Moldova Nouă, Oravița-Ciclova, Bocșa <sub>3</sub> -Ocna de Fier– Dognecea Surduc <sub>3</sub>	– 42–62 48–65 55–62	granodiorites $\pm$ tonalites
			B.I	PBZ	–	q-monzodiorites, diorites, gabbros
	Coniacian– Maastrichtian	A.II	PBZ 68	Ciclova Ocna de Fier Bocșa <sub>2</sub> Surduc <sub>2</sub>	– 80 68	granites, monzonites, potassic syenites
		A.I.	PBZ	Bocșa <sub>1</sub> Surduc <sub>1</sub>	81 75–68	monzodiorites w. gabbro-diorites banding
			PBZ			layered (nodule) cumulates of gabbro and anorthosite





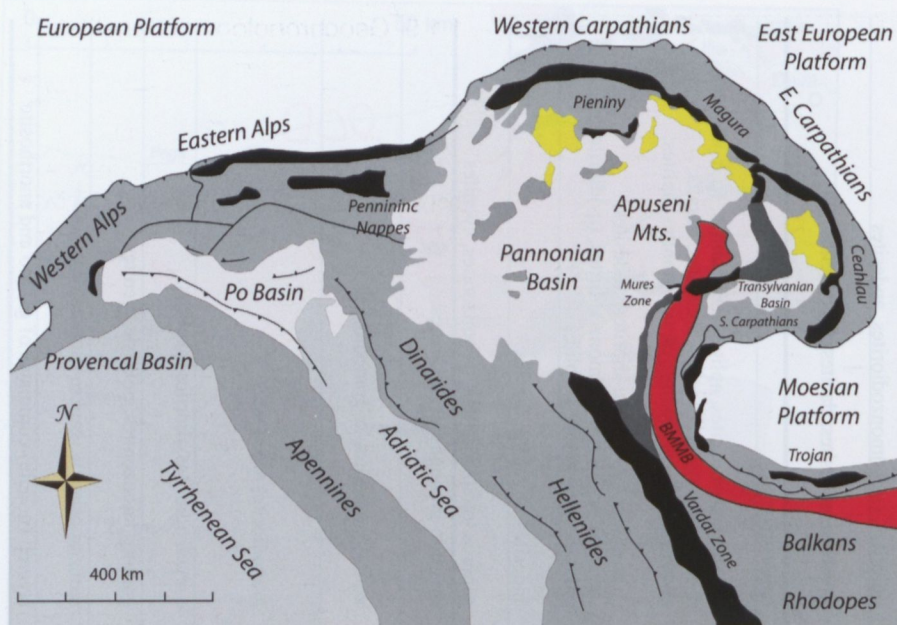


Fig. 7. The Banatitic Magmatic and Metallogenetic Belt in the context of the main geodynamic and structural domains of the Alpine-Balkan-Carpathian-Dinaride orogenic system (Heinrich & Neubauer, 2002). The main suture zones of the Neotethys Ocean are shown in black (outcropping ocean crust remnants) and dark gray (covered suture zones). The red area represents the Banatitic Magmatic and Metallogenetic Belt and the yellow patches, Neogene calc-alkaline volcanics (redrawn from Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002).

#### 1.1.4 Petrology and geochemistry of banatites

The BMMB is characterized by an extreme petrographic diversity, and of many of the individual outcropping massifs encompass a significant part of this variety. For example, only the west part of Bocșa banatitic massif (Russo-Săndulescu *et al.*, 1972, 1978) contains diorite-gabbros, monzodiorites, (porphyritic) monzonites, (porphyritic) monzogranites, syenites, (porphyritic) granodiorites, aplites, microgranites, andesites and lamprophyres. Thus, a detailed petrographic inventory of each banatite occurrence in the Romanian part of BMMB would be far beyond the scope of this guide.

Effusive banatites encompass a wide range of compositions from rhyolites (Vlădeasa), to alkali basalts (Poiana Ruscă Mts.), but medium and high-K andesites and dacites prevail in all volcanic complexes of the Romanian portion of the BMMB. Intrusive banatites range from gabbros to leucogranites, but the most widespread are (quartz) diorites, granodiorites and (quartz) monzodiorites (Berza *et al.*, 1998; Dupont *et al.*, 2002). Numerous satellite dykes contain basalts, andesites, dacites, rhyolites and relatively diverse lamprophyres.

Banatites are broadly calc-alkaline, with local tholeiitic character. Medium and high-K compositions prevail, but low-K and shoshonitic examples have also been recorded (Istrate, 1978; Ștefan, 1980; Russo-Săndulescu & Berza 1979; Stanisheva-Vassileva, 1980; Dabovski *et al.*, 1991; Ștefan *et al.*, 1992; Gheorghiușescu, 1975; Constantinescu, 1977; Russo-Săndulescu *et al.*, 1978, 1986a,b; Russo-Săndulescu & Berza,

1979; Cioflica *et al.*, 1991, 1993, summarized by Berza *et al.*, 1998 and Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002) (Figs. 8, 9, 10). The largest chemical variation is recorded for West Bocșa and Surduc intrusions in northern Banat, but at a constantly high alkali level. A peralkaline trend was found only in the eastern part of Srednogorie. Berza *et al.* (1998) assigned the acidic intrusives to A-type granitoids, originating in the mantle or in deeper crust. For the calc-alkaline bodies in the Southern Apuseni, South Banat, Timok and in the central and western Srednogorie, three stages of evolution have been identified: monzodioritic, dioritic and granodioritic. More evolved granodioritic to granitic trend is recorded in the Northern Apuseni, North Banat and Ridanj-Krepoljin. The alkaline trend is restricted to east and west Srednogorie and western Banat.

REE analyses (Ștefan *et al.*, 1992) point to similar trends in both effusive and intrusive banatites. LREE differentiation and enrichment is higher than in the

case of HREE. A negative Eu anomaly correlating with decreasing plagioclase content has also been recorded. Strontium and neodymium isotope data  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios range between 0.7058 and 0.7084 for andesites, 0.7053 and 0.7086 for dacites, 0.7054 and 0.7090 for rhyolites, whereas for Bihor granitic batholiths they reach values around 0.708.

ORG normalized spidergrams (Cioflica *et al.*, 1996, 1997; Dupont *et al.*, 2002) show Rb, K, Ba and The enrichment against Ta, Nb, Ce, Hf, Zr, Sm, Y and Yb depletion. The  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios range between 0.703 and 0.706 and  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  between 0.5126 and 0.5128. For comparison, the  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  data published by Janković & Jelenković (1997) and summarized by Ciobanu *et al.* (2002), indicate ratios of 0.705–0.709 for the Apuseni Mountains), 0.703–0.706 for Banat, 0.706–0.710 for Timok and 0.704–0.705 for Srednogorie, respectively.

Dupont *et al.* (2002) report a comprehensive set of geochemical and isotope data from various banatite occurrences in Poiana Ruscă and Banat, inferring no major differences in geochemical trends among calc-alkaline and high-K calc-alkaline intrusions, consistent with the fractional crystallization of parental magmas of similar compositions. Trace-element and isotope data support magma sources situated in the upper mantle and meet the characteristics of subduction zone magmas. Minor variations of Sr and Nd isotopic compositions could indicate slightly heterogeneous mantle or lower crustal sources. No regionally systematic variations of geochemical or isotope compositions suggesting a north-westward deepening of the subduction zone (Vlad, 1979, 1997), could be identified (*op. cit.*).



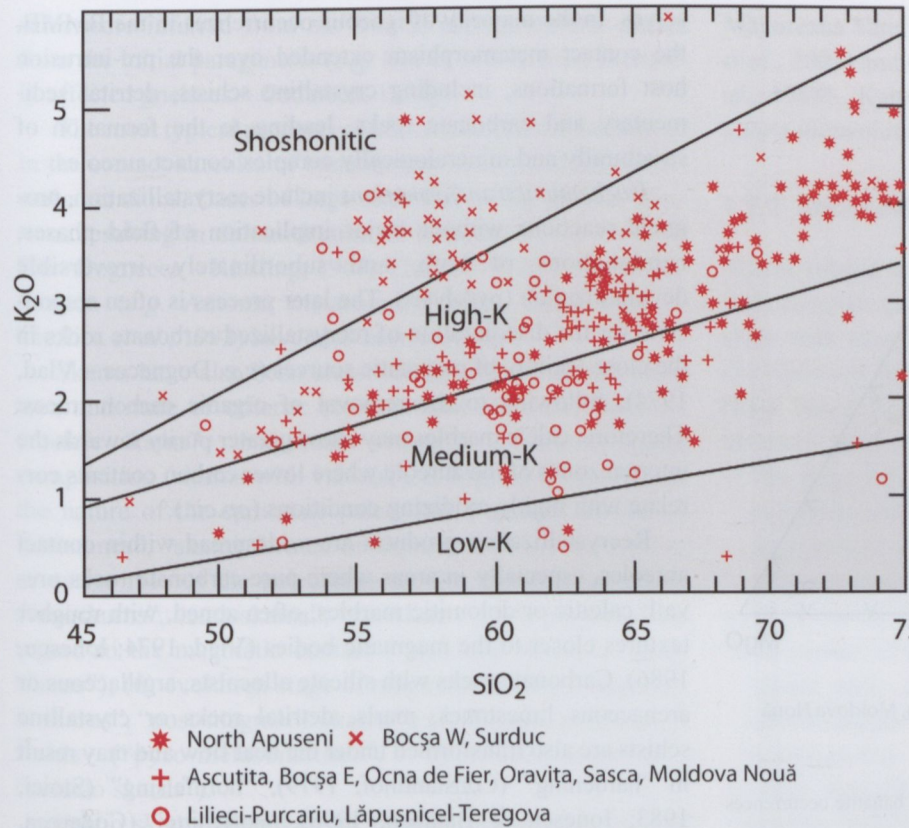


Fig. 8. The  $\text{SiO}_2$  vs.  $\text{K}_2\text{O}$  diagram (wt%) for various banatite occurrences in Romania (redrawn after Berza *et al.*, 1998).

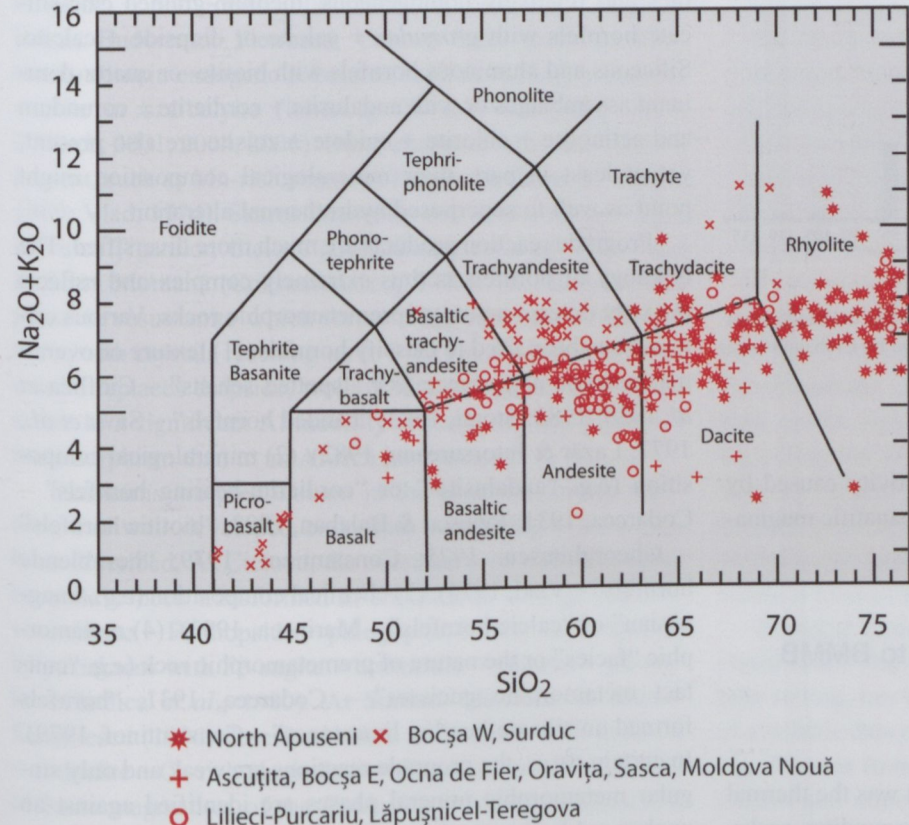


Fig. 9. The  $\text{SiO}_2$  vs.  $\text{K}_2\text{O} + \text{Na}_2\text{O}$  diagram (wt%) for various banatite occurrences in Romania (redrawn after Berza *et al.*, 1998).

### 1.1.5 Geochronology of banatites

A complete compilation of radiometric dating for banatites was published by Ciobanu *et al.* (2002). Banatite ages span between 49.5–77 Ma in Apuseni Mts., 47.2–110 Ma in Poiana Ruscă Mts., 67–89 Ma in Banat, 38–93 Ma in Serbia and 67–94 Ma in Bulgaria, respectively. Maximum of age frequencies occur in the 65–95 Ma interval (Turonian–Maastrichtian) (Fig. 11).

Oldest ages point back to Lower Aptian (e.g. Hăuzești intrusive; Cioflica *et al.*, 1994). Paleocene-Eocene ages characterize a number of effusive and dyke occurrences in Apuseni Mts., Poiana Ruscă and Timok, whereas intrusives of this age are found in Vlădeasa, Southern Apuseni Mts., Rusca Montană, and in Northern Banat, at Surduc and Bocșa. The largest time span, from Santonian to Eocene was recorded for Glîmboca-Ruschița intrusion (Kräutner *et al.*, 1986).

Re-Os ages published by Zimmermann *et al.* (2008) for 50 banatite samples from throughout the BMMB, indicate a much narrower time interval, i.e., 72.2–92.4 Ma, in good agreement with the few previously recorded U-Pb ages and overlapping with median zone of the much more scattered Rb-Sr or K-Ar data. The Re-Os measured by Zimmermann *et al.* (2008) for various segments of the BMMB, distribute as follows: Apuseni Mts. (Băița Bihor): 78.7–80.6; Poiana Ruscă (Calova, Valea Căprișoara, Tincova): 72.2–76.6; Banat (Ocna de Fier, Bocșa, Oravița, Ciclova, Moldova Nouă): 72.4–82.7; Timok (Majdanpek, Crni Vrh, Veliki Krivelj, Bor): 80.7–87.9; Panagyurishte (Elatsite, Chelopech, Medet, Assarel, Vlaykov Vruh-Elshitsa): 86.8–92.4 Ma. These data suggest as questionable previous evidence for plutonic activity extending beyond the Late Cretaceous (Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002).

Several intermediate, alkali-mafic and lamprophyre dykes from the eastern Apuseni Mts. and eastern Poiana Ruscă are systematically younger than Late Cretaceous, suggesting at least two periods of dyke emplacement, ascribable to two separate magmatic pulses (Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002). The later generation could



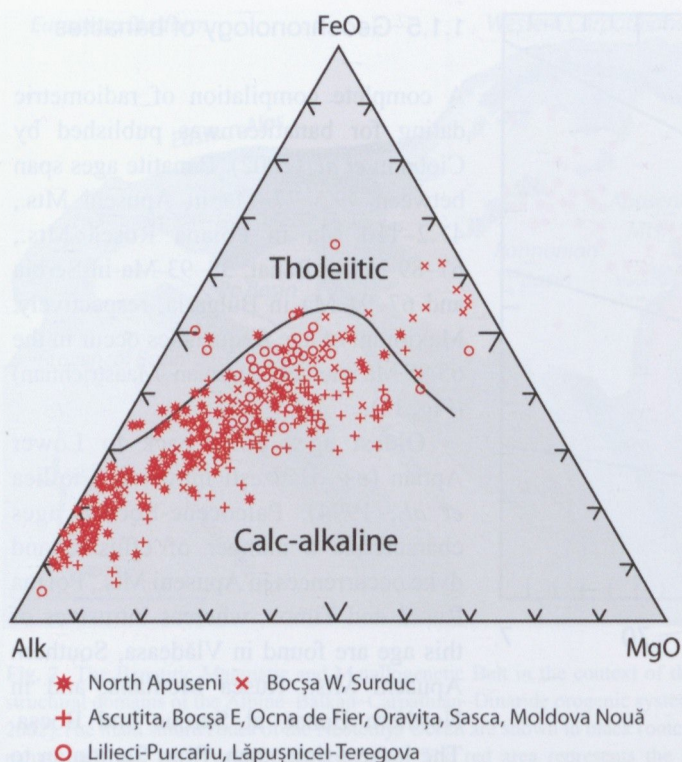


Fig. 10. The Alk-FeO-MgO ternary diagram (wt%) for banatite occurrences in Romania (redrawn after Berza *et al.*, 1998).

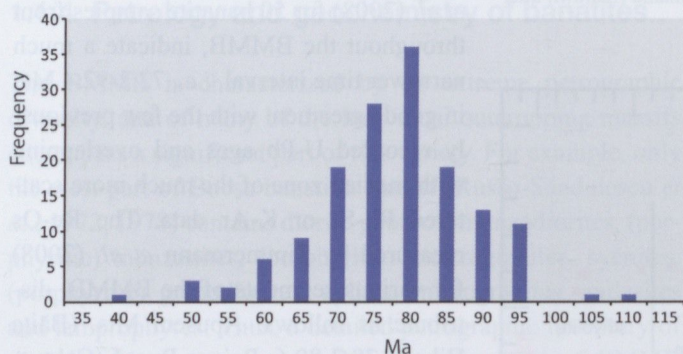


Fig. 11. Frequency histogram of radiometric ages recorded for banatites in Romania, Serbia and Bulgaria (based on data compilation by Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002).

be assigned to re-activation of magmatic activity caused by later tectonics, rather than to a final stage of banatitic magmatism *sensu stricto* (*op. cit.*).

## 1.2 Contact metamorphism related to BMMB

### 1.2.1 General features

The main effect of the banatitic emplacement was the thermal and metasomatic transformation of the surrounding rocks. Often, the metasomatic processes had an endomorphous character, affecting to different degrees the intrusive bodies them-

selves. In the majority of igneous occurrences in the BMMB, the contact metamorphism extended over the pre-intrusion host formations, including crystalline schists, detrital sedimentary and carbonate rocks, leading to the formation of structurally and mineralogically complex contact aureoles.

*Isochemical transformations* include recrystallization, prograde reactions without major implication of fluid phases, combinations of both, and subordinately, irreversible devolatilization (pyrolysis). The later process is often responsible for the discoloration of recrystallized carbonate rocks in the close vicinity of magmatic sources (*e.g.* Dognecea – Vlad, 1974), following to the removal of organic carbon traces. Therefore, calcic marbles may show greater purity towards the internal zones of the aureole where lower carbon contents correlate with highly oxidizing conditions (*op.cit.*).

Recrystallization products are widespread within contact aureoles, especially in areas where pure carbonate rocks prevail: calcitic or dolomitic marbles, often zoned, with rougher textures closer to the magmatic bodies (Vlad, 1974; Ionescu, 1986). Carbonate rocks with silicate allocalsts, argillaceous or arenaceous limestones, marls, detrital rocks or crystalline schists are also transformed under the heat flow and may result in “hardening” (Constantinof, 1979), “hornfelsing” (Stoici, 1983; Ionescu & Balaban, 1998), “softening” (Codarcea, 1931) or in textural transformations leading to obliteration of initial stratification or schistosity. Recrystallization commonly resulted in micro- or mesoblastic calcic or dolomitic marbles and relatively homogeneous, medium-grained calc-silicate hornfels with *grossular* + calcite or diopside + calcite. Siliceous and aluminous hornfels with biotite- or quartz-dominant assemblages or with andalusite + cordierite ± corundum and actinolite + chlorite + epidote ± zoisite are also present, yet at least in part, their mineralogical composition might point as well to superposed hydrothermal alteration.

Prograde reaction products are much more diversified. The typology of hornfels is thus extremely complex and reflects the very diverse nature of premetamorphic rocks. Various criteria have been used to classify hornfels: (1) texture or overall macroscopic appearance (*e.g.* “spotted schists” – Cioflica *et al.*, 1980, 1982; Stoici, 1983; “banded hornfels” – Savu *et al.*, 1977; Lazăr & Întorsureanu, 1982). (2) mineralogical composition (*e.g.* “andalusite-” or “cordierite-bearing hornfels” – Codarcea, 1931; Ionescu & Balaban, 1998; “biotitic hornfels” – Gheorghîțescu, 1975; Constantinof, 1979; “hornblende hornfels” – Vlad, 1974). (3) chemical composition (*e.g.* “magnesian” or “calcic hornfels” – Marincea, 1993). (4) metamorphic “facies” or the nature of premetamorphic rock (*e.g.* “contact metamorphic gneisses” – Codarcea, 1931, “hornfels formed on silicate-bearing limestones” – Constantinof, 1979). In certain cases, the prograde reactions are weak and only singular metamorphic mineral phases are identified against an unchanged background (*e.g.* “biotite in gneisses”, “cordierite in porphyritic rocks”, “andalusite in biotite-bearing gneisses” – Russo-Săndulescu *et al.*, 1972). Sometimes, the thermal



effects are inferred from the loss of certain mineral phases from the initial paragenesis (e.g. loss of biotite from thermally affected gneisses – Codarcea, 1931).

The most typical products of *allochemical transformations* in the contact aureoles of banatites are skarns and hydrothermal alterations. Cases of large scale  $\text{Ca} \rightleftharpoons \text{Mg}$  transfer reactions resulting in dolomitization of limestones (e.g. Ocna de Fier–Dognecea – Kissling, 1967; Vlad, 1974) or in dedolomitization (e.g. Antoniu metasomatic body, Băița Bihor – Cioflica *et al.*, 1992) have also been recorded.

Skarns have also been classified or referred to according to a multitude of criteria: (1) dominant chemical character (“calcic skarns”, “magnesian skarns”); (2) mineralogical composition (skarns with various Ca, Mg, Al silicates); (3) the nature of the carbonate paleosome (“skarns formed on limestones”, “skarns formed on dolostones”); (4) the passive or active role of the paleosome vs. the mineralizing fluids (“exoskarns”, “endoskarns”, “periskarns”); (5) position with regard to the magmatic contact (“proximal skarns”, “distal skarns”); (6) evolution stage of magmatic bodies (“magmatic skarns”, “post-magmatic skarns”); (7) thermal character of fluids (“pyro-metasomatites”, “hydro-metasomatites”, “pseudo skarns”).

Calcic skarns prevail in all banatite occurrences located nearby carbonate sedimentary formations. Subordinately, in several massifs from Bihor and Banat, magnesian skarns occur, with assemblages including forsterite + chondrodite + diopside  $\pm$  phlogopite (clinocllore) + tremolite. At Băița Bihor, Budureasa, Pietroasa, Cacova Ierii, Ocna de Fier, skarns contain endogenous borates, such as ludwigite, kotoite, suanite or szaibélyite (Ionescu, 1996a,b; Marincea, 1999, 2000a,b, 2001, 2004, 2006). Other chemical types may also be present, such as Mn-rich skarns at Dognecea (Vlad & Vasiliu, 1969; Vlad, 1974). Skarns unusually rich in aluminium occur in Valea Țiganilor, Ciclova (Constantinescu *et al.*, 1988) and at Sasca Montană (Constantinescu, 1970). The main Al-rich phase is vesuvianite which forms monomineralic concentrations, with crystals reaching up to 5–10 cm. Commonly, vesuvianite replaces diopside, wollastonite and garnet and points rather to a significant Al-mobility towards the late phases of metamorphism than to an Al-rich host rock.

Exoskarns are predominant in the banatitic contact aureoles, but well developed endoskarn assemblages have also been described. At Ciclova, the outer parts of a monzodiorite body have been transformed in endoskarns with grossular + vesuvianite + Fe-diopside + phlogopite, locally accompanied by periskarns with Fe-augite + orthoclase + titanite + grossular (Cioflica *et al.*, 1980). At Surduc, Marincea & Russo-Săndulescu (1996) described calcic endoskarns with prehnite + andradite + Ca-rich plagioclase + diopside, formed on bodies of basic magmatites of the Coniacian – Maastrichtian cycle (see Table 1).

High-temperature skarn assemblages with spurrite-tillyite-gehlenite, or diopside-gehlenite occur at Cornet Hill-

Măgureaua Vaței, Apuseni Mts. (Marincea *et al.*, 2001, Pascal *et al.*, 2001) and Ogașul Crișenilor-Oravița (Constantinescu *et al.*, 1988b, Katona *et al.*, 2003) where they are related to quartz monzonite-monzodiorites, or diorite-gabbros.

### 1.2.2 Structural typology and regional distribution

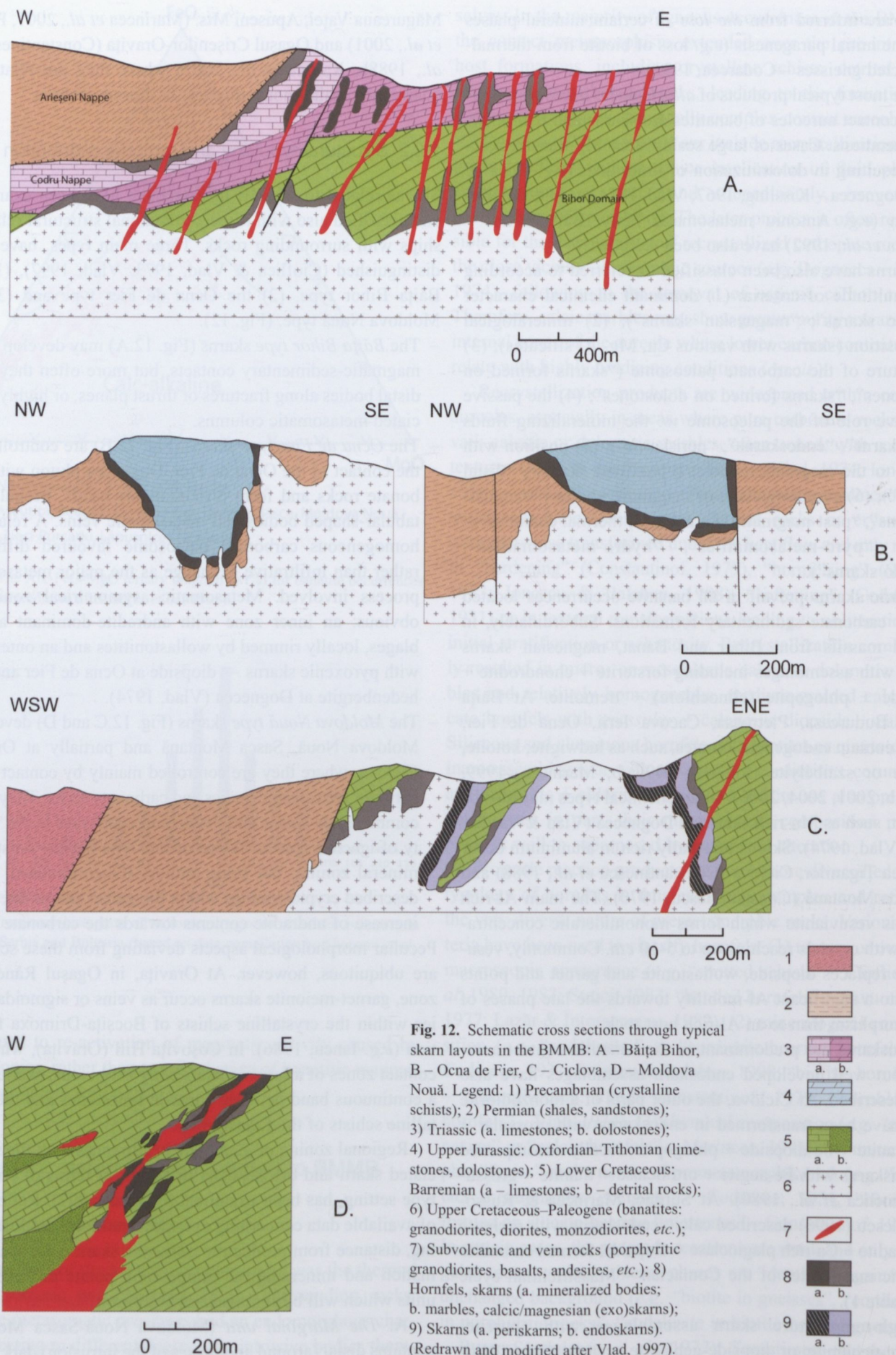
Skarns related to BMMB in Romanian have been examined and classified also with respect to regional structural relationships with surrounding rocks. Three main types, have been distinguished (Cioflica & Vlad, 1973; Vlad, 1997), (1) the Băița Bihor type, (2) the Ocna de Fier type and (3) the Moldova Nouă type. (Fig. 12).

- The *Băița Bihor type* skarns (Fig. 12.A) may develop along magmatic-sedimentary contacts, but more often they form distal bodies along fractures or thrust planes, or highly brecciated metasomatic columns.
- The *Ocna de Fier type* skarns (Fig. 12.B) are controlled by the contact of the Ocna de Fier–Dognecea pluton with carbonate rocks and form discontinuous bands, irregular- or tabular-shaped bodies and metasomatic veins. A relatively homogeneous carbonate paleosome favoured diffusion, rather than infiltrative exchange as the major metasomatic process involved. Metasomatic asymmetrical zoning is obvious: an inner zone with andradite-dominant assemblages, locally rimmed by wollastonites and an outer zone with pyroxenic skarns — diopside at Ocna de Fier and Mn-hedenbergite at Dognecea (Vlad, 1974).
- The *Moldova Nouă type* skarns (Fig. 12.C and D) develop at Moldova Nouă, Sasca Montană and partially at Oravița-Ciclova, where they are controlled mainly by contact zones between subvolcanic bodies and carbonate rocks. They occur commonly as lenses with branching apophyses in the vicinity of igneous apices. Skarns of this type display no striking mineral zoning, but some authors (Gheorghiescu, 1975) described crypto-zonings within the garnet skarns due to the increase of andradite contents towards the carbonate rocks. Peculiar morphological aspects deviating from these schemes are ubiquitous, however. At Oravița, in Ogașul Rândunicii zone, garnet-meionite skarns occur as veins or sigmoidal bodies within the crystalline schists of Bocșița-Drimoxa formation (e.g. Iancu, 1986). In Coșovița Hill (Oravița), where no contact zones of a large igneous body is obvious, skarns form a continuous band between Jurassic limestones and the crystalline schists of the Caraș group.

Regional zoning of magmatic occurrences with their associated skarn and ore deposits in Banat, in terms of Andean-type setting, has been examined by Vlad (1997). Refinement of available data concerning exoskarn host rock and local zoning, distance from productive intrusion, skarn type, skarn formation and mineralogical composition points to three main units which will be summarized as follows.

A. *The Marginal unit* (Moldova Nouă-Sasca Montană) contains distal (around apophyses of the intrusion) dark skarns







with grandite and subordinately vesuvianite, Fe-diopside, wollastonite and scapolite. Garnet vs. pyroxene ratio is about 10/1. Exoskarn host rock is commonly limestone marble and its zoning is not well expressed. However, the sequence grandite<sub>75-85and</sub> – Fe-diopside ± wollastonite – marble may be considered as characteristic. Skarn formation was monoascendant under relatively oxidizing/alkaline conditions.

B. *The Median (Intermediate) unit* (Oravița-Ciclova) contains both proximal (around plutons) and distal (along lithologic discontinuities and/or fractures in intruded rocks) skarns with lower values of garnet vs. pyroxene ratio (5/1 in proximal skarns to 3/1 in distal skarns). Skarns formation was polyascendant in an oxidizing/alkaline regime. Zoning is well expressed at least for the proximal skarns: grandite<sub>65and</sub> – Fe-diopside ± wollastonite – marble. Distal skarns display a superposed zoning: a) diopside – grandite<sub>45and</sub> ± vesuvianite ± diopside – grandite<sub>50and</sub> – grandite<sub>76and</sub> – marble (in the skarns located at the contact between hornfels and marbles); b) diopside – grandite<sub>39-43and</sub> – diopside – scapolite + diopside – diopside – diopside + scapolite (in metasomatic veins located in hornfels). Exoskarn host rocks are either limestone marbles or recrystallized carbonate-pelite sequences.

C. *The Inner unit* (Dognecea–Ocna de Fier) display proximal (around plutons) and distal (at the contact between crystalline schists and marbles) skarns with grandite + diopside – hedenbergite – johannsenite + wollastonite + manganilvaite. Garnet vs. pyroxene ratio ranges from 3/1 in proximal skarns to 1/5 in distal skarns. Skarn formation was monoascendant under relatively oxidizing/alkaline conditions for proximal skarns and reducing/acid for the distal ones. Zoning is particularly well expressed: a) grandite<sub>83-89and</sub> – manganioan Fe-diopside – marble (for proximal skarns); b) grandite<sub>80-94and</sub> – manganioan Fe-diopside – Mn-hedenbergite to Fe-johannsenite – manganilvaite (wollastonite) – marble (for distal skarns).

### 1.2.3 Hydrothermal alteration

A continuum between skarns and hydrothermal alterations is specific to all skarns occurrences in the BMMB, but the effects of hydro-metasomatism are usually extended beyond the limits of skarn zones.

Hydrothermal retrograde reactions affecting garnets and vesuvianite, commonly result in epidote + chlorite ± carbonates, quartz whereas pyroxenes breakdown to form tremolite–actinolite + serpentine + talc. High temperature hydrothermal assemblages with tourmaline + quartz ± orthoclase, magnetite were described in relation to porphyritic granodiorite intrusions from Oravița (Popescu & Constantinescu, 1977; Constantinescu *et al.*, 1988a) and from Sasca Montană (Constantinescu, 1980).

More abundant are the hydrothermal assemblages containing a) K-feldspar + biotite ± quartz, muscovite (potassic alteration), b) epidote + actinolite + chlorite + quartz + calcite (propylitic alteration), and c) illite + quartz ± chlorite, calcite,

pyrite (phyllic alteration) which are frequently related to ore deposits. Rich epithermal alteration with zeolites (laumontite, stilbite, thomsonite, chabazite *etc.*), gypsum, anhydrite, and crypto-crystalline silica are also present.

## 1.3 Metallogeny of BMMB

The studies of Cotta (1864) upon the Fe-Cu-Pb-Zn skarn deposits of Dognecea, Ocna de Fier and other mines in Banat are the first widely cited papers to define a class of “contact-deposits” found at the contact of igneous intrusions of banatites and limestones where “garnet-rock” is found (Burt, 1982). Since then, more than 50 mineral deposits have been discovered, and pending of a given historical epoch, they were of some economic interest. The mineralization related to the BMMB is represented mainly by porphyry copper, massive sulphide, skarn and vein (epithermal and mesothermal) deposits (Berza *et al.*, 1998).

By 1994, the ore deposits related to the BMMB accounted for approximately 20% of the total metal resources of Romania (Vlad & Borcoș, 1994), but today, only the porphyry copper ore deposit at Suvorov (Moldova Nouă) and very few skarn deposits are still in production. Mineralization is almost exclusively associated with banatites belonging to Stage 3 (Paleocene – Cioflica *et al.*, 1992), to Cycle II – Upper Danian-Lower Ypresian (Ștefan *et al.*, 1988) or to the Maastrichtian-Paleogene B.I and B.II cycles (Russo-Săndulescu, 1993) (Table 1).

### 1.3.1 Types of mineral deposits in the BMMB

Copper metallogeny is predominant and distinguishes the BMMB in the context of the larger ABCD belt (Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002). Copper ores are commonly associated with Pb-Zn, Au-Ag, and subordinately with Mo, Bi, W, Fe, Co, Ni and B. Mineral deposits within the BMMB are strongly differentiated with respect to host rock types and depth of magma emplacement. Shallower hypabyssal bodies are hosts for porphyry copper ores with Cu ± Au, Ag, Mo: *e.g.* Moldova Nouă (Gheorghiușescu, 1972; Gheorghiușă, 1975), Majdanpek, Cerovo, Veliki Krivelj, Bor (Timok Massif, Serbia – Janković, 1990), Elatsite, Chelopech, Assarel (Panagyurishte district, Bulgaria – Strashimirov *et al.*, 2002). High-sulphidation epithermal deposits are sometimes spatially associated with larger porphyry copper systems (*e.g.* at Bor and Majdanpek – Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002). Subeconomic porphyry copper (± Mo) accumulations are also present at Oravița, but hydrothermal alteration is far less pervasive than at Moldova Nouă. Decimetric size fissures in granodiorites – often smeared with chalcopyrite and molybdenite, delimitate granodiorite blocks almost unaffected by alteration. Large shallow porphyry-style systems with pyrite halos (and/or skarn halos) extend only south of Poiana Ruscă but they lack economic mineralization:



e.g. Tincova-Ruschița, Șopot-Teregova-Lăpușnicel areas (Vlad, 1997; Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002 and references therein; Zimmermann *et al.*, 2008).

Copper and base metal skarn deposits form the most widespread metal accumulations across the BMMB (Table 2). Some occurrences are set apart by prominent Fe metallogeny (e.g., Ocna de Fier – Nicolescu & Cornell, 1999; Cook & Ciobanu, 2001; Mașca Băișoara – Lazăr & Întorsureanu, 1979). Ocna de Fier is considered typical for fluid plume mineralization in a proximal skarn setting. Forsterite skarns host a magnetite – chalcopyrite – bornite mineralization, which represents the inner Cu-Fe core of the deposit (Cook & Ciobanu, 2001). Scheelite forms significant concentrations in the Cu-Mo mineralization of Băița Bihor (e.g. Cioflica *et al.*, 1992) and Oravița (e.g. Constantinescu *et al.*, 1988a). Bismuth sulphosalts are minor but ubiquitous components of many skarn deposits. Extremely rich and diverse assemblages have been described at Băița Bihor (e.g. Žak *et al.*, 1994; Cioflica *et al.*, 1995; Topa *et al.*, 2003), Valea Seacă (e.g. Ilinca, 1998, 2006; Ilinca & Makovicky, 1999), Ocna de Fier (e.g. Ciobanu & Cook, 2000), Oravița-Ciclova (e.g. Popescu & Constantinescu, 1977; Ilinca, 1998).

Regional zoning of skarn deposits in correlation with Upper Cretaceous subduction settings was described by Cioflica *et al.* (1992), Vlad (1997) and by Berza *et al.* (1998). The later authors distinguished two major metallogenic segments within the BMMB (Apuseni Mts. and Southern Carpathians), each one still amenable of division into further units (sub-belts, zones and districts). Local zoning is well expressed for numerous ore environments in the BMMB. At Băița Bihor (e.g. Cioflica *et al.*, 1977; Berza *et al.*, 1998) the areas closest to the magmatic sources are enriched in molybdenite. Towards the external zones, Mo-rich ores grade into Mo-W-Bi-Te (in calcic skarns) or Cu-W-Bi (in magnesian skarns), Pb-Zn (in magnesian skarns and sedimentary schists) and finally into boron mineralization overlapping dedolomitization zones. At Dognecea–Ocna de Fier, Ciobanu & Cook (2000) described a Cu-Fe → Fe → Pb-Zn metal zoning around a single granodiorite core in the deepest part of the deposit.

### 1.3.2 Paragenetic features

The polyascendant character of skarn deposits in the BMMB has either been asserted (e.g. Popescu & Constantinescu, 1977; Cioflica & Vlad, 1981) or argued against (Ilinca, 1998). Extensive sampling and detailed investigation of ore paragenesis over numerous skarn deposits in the BMMB, plead for coeval and isochronous mineralization, most probably formed from the differentiation of a single fluid. Moreover, apart from several cases of prominent metallogeny (e.g. Fe at Ocna de Fier), the overall paragenetic sequence for virtually all mineral deposits in the BMMB is roughly the same, both as mineral phases and deposition sequence. Ilinca (1998) separated the following ore deposition sequences:

- Stage 1 (“siderophile” – Fe ± Co, Ni, As, Mn) – iron oxides and sulphides, Co, Ni, Fe arsenides and sulpharsenides, with subordinate Fe-Mn calcic silicates. The stage signifies the highest deposition temperatures and a continuous decrease of oxygen fugacity (e.g. hematite → magnetite, magnesioferrite) vs. increase of sulphur fugacity (pyrrhotite → pyrite). At Băița Bihor, Ocna de Fier, Oravița, Ciclova and Sasca Montană early iron sulphides are accompanied by nickeline, rammelsbergite, cobaltite, gersdorffite (Ilinca, 1998), Co-pentlandite (Cook & Ciobanu, 2001), linnaeite, bravoite, siegenite, millerite (Constantinescu, 1980).
- Stage 2 (Pb, Zn ± Ag, Bi, Fe) – forms the bulk of the mineralization in numerous occurrences across the BMMB. The stage is represented by galena (with up to 10 mol% matildite) and sphalerite usually with 14–15 mol% FeS). Invariably, the direct contact between galena and siderophiles, shows the late character of the Pb-Zn phases.
- Stage 3 (Pb, Bi ± Ag, Sb, Te, Cu) – contains Pb-(Ag)/Bi sulphosalts (lillianite homologues (heyrovskýite, lillianite, vikingite), cosalite, cannizzarite, galenobismutite). Some Pb-Bi sulphosalts are formed on older galena, most probably belonging to the previous stage. Stage 3 members often substitute siderophile sulphides likely to belong to stage 1. The same stage witnesses the deposition of Bi (±Pb) tellurides: joseite A-B, “protojoseite”, and rarely native bismuth. Cosalite represents a late deposition within this stage. It contains small amounts of Cu and replaces heyrovskýite, lillianite and cannizzarite. In Sasca Montană and Moldova Nouă, stage 3 assemblages are mostly represented by Sb (±As) sulphosalts: geocronite, boulangerite and zinkenite, often formed on older galena.
- Stage 4 (“copper metasomatism” (CM) – Cu, Bi ± Pb, Ag, Fe, Sb, Te, As, Zn, Au, Mo, W) – is distinguished by progressive increase of Cu content in sulphides and sulphosalts. Massive deposition of chalcopyrite, cubanite and bornite takes place in this stage. Fahlore minerals (tetrahedrite–tennantite, enargite, luzonite) occur also in this stage, most frequently on Fe, Zn, Sb, As phases of earlier stages. Chalcopyrite takes the form of massive monomineralic precipitates, with conspicuous growth zoning. At Băița Bihor, Oravița and Ciclova, chalcopyrite and cubanite are often pseudomorphs after pyrite and replace Co and Fe sulpharsenides. “Chalcopyrite disease” phenomena, i.e. chalcopyrite (± bornite, mackinawite) blebs in sphalerite (Barton & Bethke, 1987; Bente & Doering, 1993) are widespread and represent yet another facet of CM. Bi sulphosalts are particularly sensitive to CM transformations. First Bi phases show an increased Bi<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>/PbS ratio compared to previous stages and grade towards decreasing Bi/Cu. Such minerals form directly or by replacing older Pb-Bi sulphosalts (especially cannizzarite and galenobismutite): proudite, lillianite (with up to 2.9 at% Cu), felbertalite, (high-Cu) cosalite, neyite, junotite. The sequence continues with nuffieldite and massive deposition of bismuthinite derivatives, covering the entire range



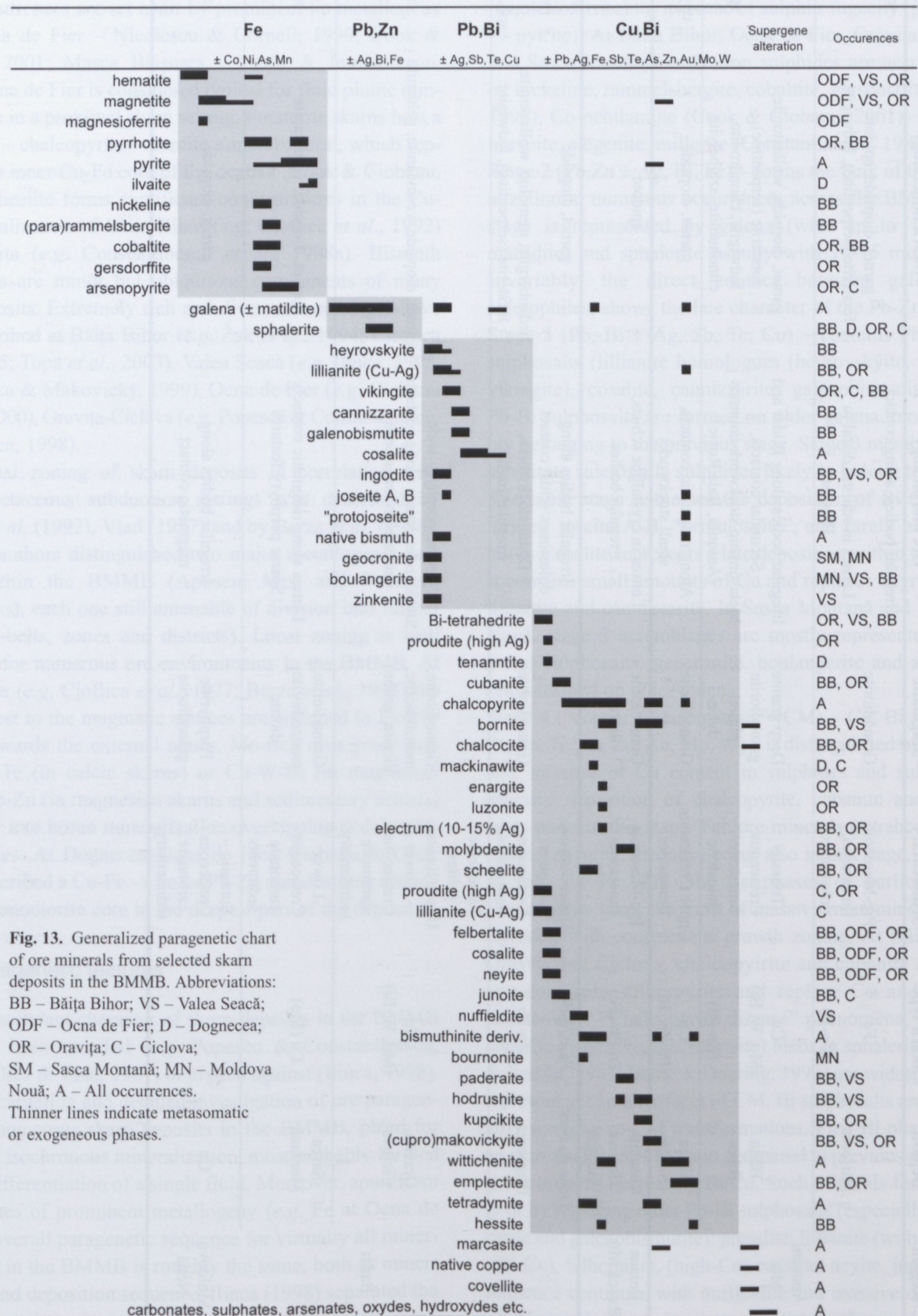
**Table 2.** Features of selected skarn deposits in the Romanian portion of BMMB (modified after Ciobanu *et al.*, 2002) mgt – magnetite, py – pyrite, po – pyrrhotite, cpy – chalcopyrite, bn – bornite, mob – molybdenite, sph – sphalerite, gn – galena, sch – scheelite, hem – hematite, Biss – bismuth sulphosalts

Region	Deposit	Skarn type	Sedimentary	Magmatic	Ore morphology	Skarn mineralogy	Ore mineralogy
Apuseni Mts.	Băișoara	Fe	Pre-Mesozoic limestones, dolostones	Granodiorite	Irregular bodies, along contact		mgt, py, po, mob
		Zn-Pb			Lenses in schists, distal to Băișoara	garnet, diopside, epidote forsterite (serpentine), ludwigite	sph, gn, py
	Băița Bihor	Cu (Mo, W, Bi) (Zn-Pb)	Triassic/ Cretaceous limestone/ dolostone	Deep granite granodiorite pluton dykes	Irregular bodies along Blidar and Secundar contacts, Metasomatic stockwork columns (Antoniou, Baia Roșie)	garnet, diopside, wollastonite, forsterite (serpentine), ludwigite, chondrodite, clinohumite, szaibélyite	cpy, bn, mol, sph, gn, sch, Biss
	Valea Seacă	Cu (Pb-Zn, Bi)	Upper Cretaceous limestones	Granodiorite	Along magmatic contacts, small stockworks	garnet, diopside	cpy, mgt, mob, Biss
Poiana Ruscă Mts.	Ruschița, Tincova, Ascuțița	Zn-Pb-(Fe)	Pre-Mesozoic limestones	Granodiorite diorite	Lenses in crystalline schists, Irregular bodies	epidote	sph, gn, hem
Banat	Ocna de Fier	Fe-(Cu,Bi)	Upper Jurassic – Lower	Granodiorite	Irregular bodies along dolostones/schist contact	garnet, diopside	mgt, hem, bn, cpy
	Dognecea	Zn-Pb	Cretaceous dolostones		Distal stockworks, irregular bodies	hedenbergite, tremolite, wollastonite, forsterite (serpentine), ludwigite	sph, gn, hem, py, mob
	Oravița-Ciclova	Cu (Mo, W, Bi)	Palaeozoic pelites, Upper Jurassic – Lower Cretaceous carbonate sedimentary	Granodiorite, monzodiorite, diorite, gabbro	Sparse porphyry-style Stockworks, lenses along contacts and within limestones	garnet, diopside, vesuvianite, gehlenite	cpy, po, py, mob, sch, Biss
	Sasca Montană	Cu (Mo)	Lower Cretaceous carbonate sediments	Granodiorite, monzodiorite, diorite	Lenses along magmatic contacts Sparse porphyry features	garnet, diopside, vesuvianite	cpy, po, py, mob
Moldova Nouă	Cu		Jurassic – Cretaceous carbonate sedimentary	Porphyritic granodiorite	Irregular bodies along magmatic contact	garnet, diopside	cpy, py, mgt, py



between bismuthinite and aikinite. In antimony dominated assemblages, bournonite is formed. The highest Cu contents are embodied by makovickyite-cupromakovickyite, padraite, hodrushite and kupčikite and finally by pure Cu-Bi

sulphosalts such as emplectite and wittichenite. At Băița Bihor, Oravița and Ciclova, the CM stage includes electrum (10-15% Ag), scheelite and molybdenite. A synoptical view of the overall paragenetic sequence is given in Fig. 13.



**Fig. 13.** Generalized paragenetic chart of ore minerals from selected skarn deposits in the BMMB. Abbreviations: BB – Băița Bihor; VS – Valea Seacă; ODF – Ocna de Fier; D – Dognecea; OR – Oravița; C – Ciclova; SM – Sasca Montană; MN – Moldova Nouă; A – All occurrences. Thinner lines indicate metasomatic or exogeneous phases.



### 1.3.3 Brief history of mining in the BMMB

The mining history throughout the BMMB has developed unevenly. Ancient populations in the Apuseni Mountains have been focusing upon the richer and more accessible gold and base-metal deposits related to Neogene volcanism. Instead, in Banat area, skarn deposits have been exclusive sources for metallic raw materials and the emancipation of mining relied entirely on Late Cretaceous-Paleocene banatitic mineral environments.

It is likely however, that skarn deposits in Northern Apuseni, especially those in Crișul Negru Basin, have been subjected to mining and metal working ever since the Dacian times. In 1270, King Stephen V granted bishop Monoslov of the Roman-Catholic Diocese in Oradea the right to carry out mining activities in Băița Mts. (Degău, 2007). An epoch of economic growth commenced, as suggested by the newly constructed fortress of Finiș and by the city of Beiuș becoming the second city of residence for the major landowner in the area: the Roman-Catholic Diocese of Oradea. Numerous mining experts and workers were brought Germany, France, Austria and from the northern parts of Hungary, and the first large-scale operations started for gold, silver and copper at Băița and for iron at Vașcău. Local population adopted rapidly the new crafts and started to practice gold panning from alluvia and, iron/copper metal working. Virtually every settlement had at least two or three blacksmiths supplying a whole diversity of metal products for domestic and military use. Copper mining became increasingly important and by mid-16<sup>th</sup> century a whole new locality – Rézbánya – took its name from its main industrial activity and mineral resource. The benefits of the local society were undoubtedly great, if we only think about the volume of ore mined. Historical statistics show that by the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Băița mine provided 1567 kg of silver worth 14,106 florins, 5326 kilograms of lead worth 878 florins and 7399 kg of copper worth 4899 florins. Mining of iron developed continuously at Vașcău and Pietroasa, reaching a quantity of 1500 centners (approx. 75,000 kg) in 1839.

In the late 1940s, the Soviets started a massive mining operation for uranium at Avram Iancu, nearby Băița Bihor. Mining personal grew to over 20,000, but the military in charge with keeping the mine under control, kept the pace at over 10,000 people. Two new cities emerged in 1952, within 15 km from the mine: Petru Groza (today Ștei) and Nucet. Over 300,000 tons of high-grade uranium ore have been transported to the Soviet Union.

Marble deposits from recrystallized limestone environments were heavily exploited at Vașcău, Pietroasa, Budureasa, Colești and Chișcău. Much of this material was used for administrative and residential buildings in Oradea and Budapest.

The early days of mining in Banat area share a much more complex story. The oldest relics of human activity in Banat region date from 1900–1700 BC, i.e., from the transition

phase between the New Stone Age and the Bronze Age. Pottery decorated with incised or relief markings, flint blades and axes, and hammered copper awls were found in a nomadic shepherd settlement at Colțan near Ocna de Fier. Mining during this period may not have been anything else but picking the native copper from natural outcrops, yet the smooth shaped tools show careful craftsmanship and speak about a rather prosperous society.

The Bronze Age (about 1800–1200 BC) saw the introduction of an occupation that was to have vital importance to the region thereafter: namely, agriculture. However, copper mining and processing continued as proved by the archaeological finds at Bocșa, Ocna de Fier, Dognecea and Oravița. Near the Iuliana quarry in Ocna de Fier, scanty remains of a foundry dating from this period and few of its products: sickles and bronze bracelets, were also found. The transition to the Iron Age seems to have been beset without difficulties, at least not of a technical nature if only the plentiful iron ores occurring near the surface in the Ocna de Fier region are to be considered. As a matter of fact, the numerous Iron Age slag fields found near Bocșa Montană show an intensely sustained iron processing activity.

The existence of Roman mining within the boundaries of south-western Banat has not been in doubt for at least two hundred years. The 18<sup>th</sup> century scholar and explorer Francesco Grisellini (1780) mentioned the existence of a Roman funeral plaque found near some mining wells at Moldova Nouă, most probably testifying to the Roman concern for the copper ores in the area. Indeed, after the war in 106 AD, when Emperor Trajan conquered Dacia, the Roman's interest was principally cantered on the mining of the renowned gold and other metal resources which were close at hand in the central part of the province. A votive plaque found near Zlatna (the former *Ampelum*) is interpreted by modern historians as a solemn oath to the gods for the success of the action: IOV. INVENTORI/ DITI. PATRI TERRAE MATRI/DETECTIS DACIAE THESAURIS/DIVVS NERVA TRAIANVS/CAES. AUG./VOTUM SOLVIT.

Consequently, a *Collegium Aurarium* was settled in *Ampelum*, which was mainly intended to set technical and financial control over the gold and base metal operation. With an appointed *procurator aurarium* chosen from Trajan's former slaves, the *Collegium* managed to organize the ores extraction not only within *Dacia mediterranea* (today's Transylvania) but to expand its activity in *Dacia ripensis* (Banat), too. Here, they dealt mainly with copper ores, but gold, even in minor amounts, was not left apart. Traces of Roman mining were still visible until not so long ago at Cracul de Aur (in Ocna de Fier) where several small galleries and miner's rushlights were discovered. Nearby, at Berzovia (the former *Berzovis*), historical sources mention a celebrated *Schola fabrorum*, within which basic skills of metal processing were acquired.

Little is known about the post-Roman period, but for the later middle ages we have the assistance of some records surviving



from 1552, which describe the intensive exploitations of gold in the so-called *Wolfganger Gebirge* and *Reicher Spitz* areas near Ocna de Fier–Dognecea zone. Following the battle of Mohács in 1524, the 164 years during which Banat was a Turkish *pashalik*, witnessed only little or no progress at all in the ore extraction field. Facing a permanent state of war and showing scarce interest in economic development of the occupied territory, the Turks exerted practically no influence in the matter so that the ore pits supplied mainly the raw material for the domestic needs of the natives. Few iron slags and furnaces dating from this period, were found in the vicinity of Moravița Valley and in the Dealovăț Hill in Ocna de Fier. Austrian documents from the second half of the 1700s speak about the *Johanni* mine in Ocna de Fier which was exploited by the Turks and reopened in 1720 with the assistance of local miners, who worked there during the occupation, for copper, lead and silver. However, judged by the appearances of the mine, it seemed that the works were older than the Turkish occupation testifying to a constant and sustained autochthonous activity. Even the very old toponym “Bocșa” (a locality near Ocna de Fier) originating in the term *bocșani* – charcoal makers – suggests a permanent need of partly burned wood for metal processing.

After the peace treaty of Passarowitz in 1718, Banat came under Austrian rule, which put the province on the threshold of a period of extraordinary expansion. The prime task now was to restore the mining industry; an aim which was largely completed by about 1720 under Charles VI, who organized four *Mountainous Offices* in Dognecea, Oravița, Sasca and Moldova, in order to cover the major productive areas. Yet, the availability of skilled miners was scarce among local inhabitants essentially engaged in agricultural production, and the newly established mining school in Oravița produced mainly executive staff unable to meet the demand for people effectively working in the mines. Such were the circumstances that induced Emperor Charles VI to enact major privileges for the miners in Banat and to grant “all the possible exemptions from taxation” if someone was to get willingly engaged in mining work. These measures were intended to attract people from the neighbouring provinces, but unfortunately, they didn’t resulted immediately in providing the desired source of operatives, since many newcomers from Carinthia, Styria and Tyrol were mining experts, engineers or civil servants.

Nevertheless, the ore extraction begun to acquire industrial characteristics and the south-western part of Banat witnessed a period of phenomenal development which established the territory of the four *Mountainous Offices* almost as a rival to Timișoara (the capital of Banat) in the determination of fiscal policy. It depended a good deal on improved communications and on heavy and continual capital investment. New metal processing centres were established in Bocșa, Dognecea and Oravița. The outputs were chiefly iron, copper and lead, and some of the ores were sent to Annaberg for the extraction of silver. The metals were heavily exported to Constantinople,

Venice, Trieste, Poland, Latvia *etc.* Again, mine operatives were insufficient, but soon, a major immigration from Oltenia and Muntenia has started, bringing thousands of people to work in the mines or foundries and providing a readily available, yet unstable source of workers. “As soon as they earn 50-100 florins, and it is quite easily to make this money in a very short time, many *bufeni* (immigrants coming from Oltenia) fled the province, and thus, a great deal of money is lost for the country”, wrote Ehrler (1774) in a discussion upon the utility of using foreign workers inside the Empire. According to Ehrler, by that time, Banat produced about 280 tons of copper, 1680 tons of iron and 170 kg of silver per annum “...and things would be even better if an increased number of subjects would acquire the skills necessary in ore extraction”.

Old documents mention that gold was extracted, too; several mines were opened for gold at Bocșa, Lescovița-Zlatița, Oravița and Sasca, but seemingly, they have been unproductive. Local authorities were equally concerned with alluvial gold deposits connected with Caraș, Nera and Bârzava rivers, which were regularly exploited in those days by groups of nomadic gypsies, but they failed in their attempt to expand this occupation with advantage. Gold indications described by the gypsies were elusive; production was low and unstable, largely depending on rainfall *etc.* Still, the main goal of mining industry in Banat was copper. Mining plans and sketches available in Romanian archives display hundreds of copper mines in a puzzling pattern of galleries and wells. One of them, the mine *Simon und Juda* in Ocna de Fier, was described by Ignaz von Born (1774) as being the richest in Europe: “...all its galleries go in pure copper ore with no sterile, whatsoever”. There was in the middle of a new and lasting period of economic progress. Some idea of the expansion of mining industry in south-western Banat may be gauged from the fact that the currencies supplied from the Empire were quite insufficient for the local needs so that a mint has to be established in Ciclova (a suburb of Oravița at the time) where copper coins with a distinctive “O” – for Oravița, were issued. A former village with only 77 houses recorded by an official census in 1717, Oravița became the economic and financial capital of Banat and the first town within the present borders of Romania to enjoy some technical and cultural achievements such as theatres and railroads (Fig. 14).

Mineralogical and geological descriptions of Banat had already begun to appear. It is entirely to the credit of pioneers like Born, Grisellini or Ehrler that the information they put on record tell more about the mineralogical richness of this territory than one can see today. Though somehow naive (for example, Grisellini failed to notice the presence of magmatic rocks connected with ores), their studies attempted not only to give a comprehensive inventory of minerals and rocks, but to explain the genesis of the ore deposits, too. Mentions such as *Crystallis spatosa acaulis*, *crystallis pyramidalibus trinquetris*, *Cuprum vitratum*, *violaceum et caeruleum aut rubrum*, *Granati martialis crystallisatus dodecaedrus obscuriflavus et*





**Fig. 14.** The Oravița-Anina railroad is the second mountain railroad ever built in Europe. It was intended to connect the coal deposit in Anina with the Danube ports. Construction took place between 1860 and 1863; the railroad measures 33 km, with 10 viaducts and 14 tunnels, and remains one of the most scenic routes in Romania (Photo: Detlef Schikorr – [www.drehscheibe-foren.de](http://www.drehscheibe-foren.de)).

*nigrescens*, *Asbestus fibris durioribus parallelis, cum granato martialis* or *Mica martialis drusica, squamis concentratis* are perhaps the first mineralogical descriptions ever made here. Noteworthy are the later works of Bernhard von Cotta (1864) who was the first to describe the Alpine intrusive rocks in Banat, which he called *banatites*, and to recognize their consanguinity.

A new conflict with the Turks in 1837 brought the mining industry of Banat to a standstill and its inhabitants were further impoverished by war taxation. An outbreak of plague in 1840 added to their miseries. Many officials and colonists fled the province and the mining directories have ceased to function. Thereafter, the activity resumed, the *Offices* were re-established, but much apathy became apparent due to the post-war economic crisis and the central authorities from Vienna could no longer manage the mines directly. Thus, the mining fields were leased to individuals (*Allgewerkschaft*) or to co-operative societies (*Grubengewerkschaft*) which eventually became independent under the form of a so-called “free and self-supporting exploitation”.

After the social and political movements of 1848, owing to persistent financial crisis, the Austrian authorities have decided to license some forests, railroads and mines. As a result, the *Kaiserliche und Königliche Privilegierte Staatseisenbahngesellschaft* (STEG) was founded in 1855; a powerful organization, which ignored the traditional co-operative system of the leaseholders and even their right to possess mining fields. Though it aroused no open protest from the mine owners, STEG induced heavy bankruptcy among them and soon the small mines have disappeared. However, ore production managed by STEG has continuously increased thereafter, reaching its climax to the end of the 1800s, when about 93% of the iron and coal consumed in Transylvania was supplied by this company. Estimates of 1897 show that Banat produced 146,150 tons of iron, which was ten times the quantity extracted in

1855. Other metals were (in 1870): Au – 36 kg, Ag – 425 kg, Cu – 107 tons, Pb – 21 tons.

In 1920, STEG was overtaken over by a Romanian company: *Uzinele și Domeniile Reșița* (UDR) which was interested mainly in the iron ores from Ocna de Fier and in the coal deposits from Lupac, Doman, Secu and Anina – very close at hand supplies for the steel works in Reșița.

The rest is comparatively recent history. During the 1970s, remainings of the metal resources were still being extensively exploited, but afterwards, many of the south-western Banat ore deposits became too small and too poor to supply an ever increasingly requesting industry.

## 2. Field stops

### Day 1

#### 2.1 Field stop 1 – Skarns and mineralization at Băița Bihor

**Coordinates:** 46°30'0.92"N 22°37'37.18"E, elevation 640 m

Băița Bihor mine is the most diverse and economically important skarn deposit in the Northern Apuseni segment of the BMMB. The visit will include a presentation of the mining activities by S.C. Băița S.A. at their headquarters in Ștei (Fig. 15), and a field stop at the actual mining site, where both underground and quarry operations are taking place.

The mine is located in the upper course of Crișul Negru River where various lithologies belonging to the Bihor domain and Codru nappes are intersected by numerous igneous dykes rooted in a deep granodiorite-granite pluton. Detailed descrip-



**Fig. 15.** The headquarters of S.C. Băița S.A. in Ștei. A typical Soviet neo-classical architecture from the 1950s, still dominates the largest boulevard in Ștei. Here, a presentation of the Băița mine will be given to field trip attendants.



tions of the local stratigraphy and ore deposits are published in numerous works, *e.g.* Giușcă (1937), Gherasi (1969), Cioflica *et al.* (1967, 1971, 1974, 1976, 1977, 1982), Cioflica & Vlad (1968, 1970, 1973a,b,c, 1977, 1980), Ștefan *et al.* (1988), Marincea (1999), Vlad & Cioflica (1994).

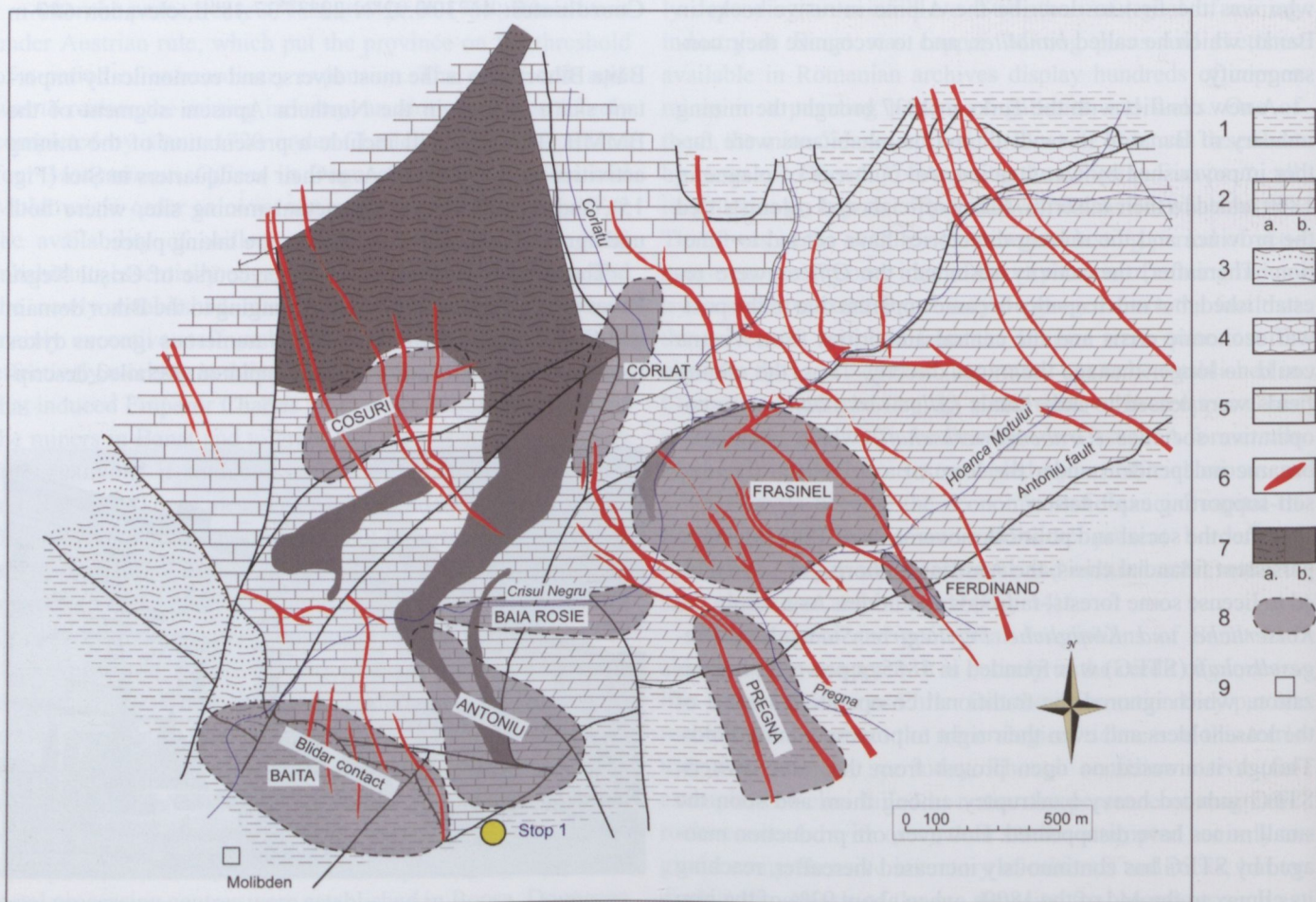
The sedimentary formations are structurally divided among two major tectonic units:

- The Bihor domain – is represented by a comprehensive sedimentary cover with (1) micro-conglomerates and lithic sandstones, pelites, limestones and marls (Hettangian–Sinemurian); (2) fine or arenitic Farcu limestones (Oxfordian–Tithonian); (3) Albioara limestones (Upper Tithonian) and (4) limestones and bauxites (Barremian). The Bihor unit lies directly upon the Bihor main batholithic body and is largely affected by thermal and metasomatic metamorphism.
- The Codru nappes – contain lithic sandstones and siltites, pelites and clayey limestones (Permian), quartz sandstones and coarse litharenites (Werfenian), dolostones and clayey limestones (Anisian), micritic limestones (Ladinian) covered by a thick detrital sequence stretching to Lower Jurassic (Carnian–Hettangian).

The overthrusting of Codru nappes on Bihor domain at Băița Bihor is visible along the Blidar contact and Antoniu fault (Fig. 16).

The banatites are represented by a large intrusive body, composed mainly of granodiorite with subordinate granites, quartz microdiorites, syenites and various dioritic xenoliths (Stoici, 1983). Numerous dykes of rhyolites, rhyodacites, dacites, andesites, basalts, lamprophyres crosscut the entire area and form continuous outcrops extended over hundreds of meters. Dykes are 10–15 m wide and are generally oriented NW–SE, with steep inclinations of up to 80° (Fig. 17).

Contact metamorphism phenomena are widespread. The vertical extension of thermal and metasomatic transformations above the roof of the main intrusive body is estimated at 1.5 km, of which more than 1000 m are well documented from drill holes. Detrital and siltic Permian rocks are transformed in hornfels of various types, such as “spotted shales” (Cioflica *et al.*, 1980), blasto-pelitic, blasto-psamitic, porphyro- or granoblastic aluminous hornfels with illite-biotite-andalusite-cordierite-hematite, epidote-actinolite-tourmaline hornfels, calc-aluminous hornfels with plagioclase-diopside-grossular (Cioflica *et al.*, 1974; Stoici, 1983). Peraluminous hornfels



**Fig. 16.** Geological sketch map of Băița Bihor area (simplified after Stoici, 1974). 1) Permian (sandstones, siltites); 2) Anisian–Norian (a. limestones; b. dolostones); 3) Lower Jurassic (shales, sandstones, black limestones); 4) Oxfordian–Tithonian (limestones, dolostones); 5) Barremian (a. limestones; b. detrital rocks); 6) Upper Cretaceous–Paleogene (banatites: dykes: basalts, andesites); 7) Hornfels, skarns; 8) Metasomatic mineralized body; 9) Mining shaft.



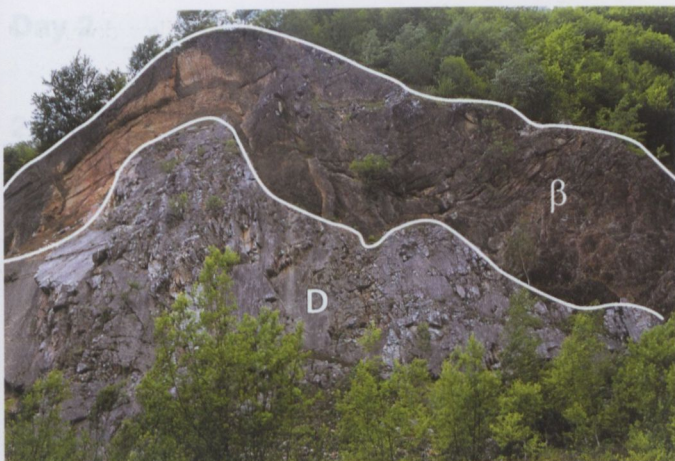


Fig. 17. Dyke of basalt ( $\beta$ ) in Triassic dolomites (D), at Băița Bihor.

and extensive marbles formed on pure, alloclast-free carbonate rocks, add to this suite (Figs. 18, 19).

Pyrometasomatic transformations display extremely diverse compositions and geometries, reflecting a strongly differentiated paleosome. Proximal skarns following the magmatic contacts

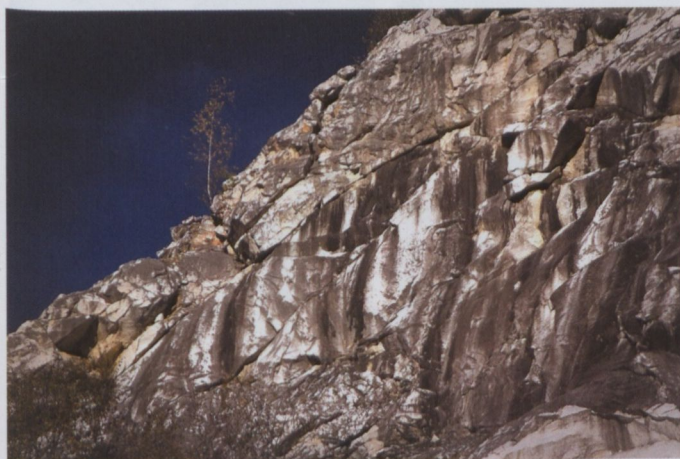


Fig. 18. Outcrop of recrystallized Cretaceous limestones at Băița Bihor.



Fig. 19. Small scale quarrying of marble at Băița Bihor.

often grade into complicated branching morphologies suggesting infiltration processes along pre-existent rupture zones, such as thrust planes, or networks of fractures (distal skarns). Both magmatic and post-magmatic skarns have been described (e.g. Cioflica & Vlad, 1974; Stoici, 1983; Marincea, 1999), with the later type further divided into calcic skarns (scapolite-diopside-wollastonite-vesuvianite) and magnesian skarns (spinel-forsterite-chondrodite-phlogopite). The contact-metamorphic zone is affected by extensive boron metasomatism, especially in magnesian skarns developed on Triassic dolostones sequences (Marincea, 1999).

The mineralization is Cu- and locally, Pb-Zn-dominated, but with significant Mo + Bi + W + B. It develops in calcic skarns conformable to nappe overthrusting planes or to contacts between magmatic dykes and limestones, but mostly within a series of metasomatic columns (Baia Roșie, Antoniu, Hoanca Moțului, Bolfu-Tony), *i.e.*, quasi-cylindrical structures hosted in Triassic dolomites and extending over 400 m in depth. The columns are enveloped by a thick layer of dolomitic marbles with abundant magnesian borates (kotoite, suanite, ludwigite, fluoborite, szaibélyite) grading inwards to a zone with dedolomitized carbonate rocks and further to diopside-andradite-wollastonite skarns. The outer shell of the skarn zone is rich in galena and sphalerite, whereas the central parts are enriched in chalcopyrite, Bi sulphosalts, molybdenite and scheelite (Figs. 20, 21).

More than 100 minerals are cited from Băița Bihor (see Appendix 1), of which four have their type locality here: makovickyite –  $\text{Ag}_{1.5}\text{Bi}_{5.5}\text{S}_9$  (Žak *et al.*, 1994), padëraite –  $\text{AgPb}_2\text{Cu}_6\text{Bi}_{11}\text{S}_{22}$  (Mumme & Žak, 1985), szaibélyite –  $\text{Mg}_2(\text{B}_2\text{O}_4\text{OH})(\text{OH})$  (Peters, 1861 *vide* Papp, 2004) and a recently discovered sulphosalt mineral (IMA 2008-053), yet to be published. Extensive studies on szaibélyite, fluoborite and other magnesian borates from this locality have been carried out by Marincea (1999, 2000b,c).

Szaibélyite from Băița Bihor is close to the end-member composition  $\text{Mg}_2(\text{B}_2\text{O}_4\text{OH})(\text{OH})$ . Up to 0.88 mol% sussexite (the Mn end-member), 1.06 mol%  $\text{Fe}_2(\text{B}_2\text{O}_4\text{OH})(\text{OH})$  and 0.20 mol%  $\text{Ca}_2(\text{B}_2\text{O}_4\text{OH})(\text{OH})$  were deduced on the basis of



Fig. 20. Typical aspect of underground mineralization in diopside-garnet skarns (Antoniu metasomatic column, Băița Bihor).



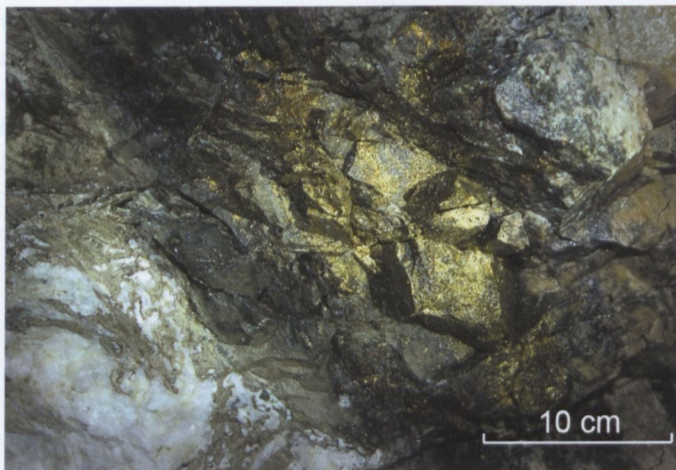


Fig. 21. Massive chalcopyrite and chalcocite in diopside-garnet skarns (Antoniou metasomatic column, Băița Bihor).

combined wet-chemical and electron-microprobe analyses (Fig. 22). The mineral is monoclinic, space group  $P2_1/a$ ,  $a$  12.559(18),  $b$  10.402(12),  $c$  3.132(8) Å and  $\beta$  95.77(33)°. Szaibélyite from Băița Bihor is estimated to have developed at temperatures of 160–450 °C, pressures of 0.6–3 kbar, at relatively high activity of fluorine, and at low potentials of iron and manganese.

Fluorborite occurs in the outer zones of the metasomatic columns where it is closely associated with calcite, fluorite, chondrodite and norbergite in a paragenesis that also includes dolomite, magnesite, kotoite, suanite and ludwigite. Fluorborite forms acicular crystals in sheaf-like aggregates, generally enveloped by calcite. Temperatures of 380–450 °C and pressures of 0.6–3 kbar were estimated for fluorborite crystallization (Marincea, 2000c).

During the last decades Băița Bihor has become famous for its outstanding Bi sulphosalt assemblages. Makovickyite–cupromakovickyite exsolution textures, padérite (observed compositions; Ilinca, 1998) –  $\text{Cu}_{6.9}\text{Ag}_{0.2}\text{Pb}_{1.32}\text{Bi}_{11.5}\text{S}_{21.7}$ , hodrushite –  $\text{Cu}_{7.8}\text{Fe}_{0.3}\text{Ag}_{0.2}\text{Bi}_{11.5}\text{S}_{21.5}$ , kupčikite –  $\text{Cu}_{7.8}\text{Fe}_{1.1}\text{Ag}_{0.1}\text{Bi}_{10.9}\text{Sb}_{0.1}\text{S}_{21.4}$ , lillianite –  $\text{Cu}_{0.4}\text{Ag}_{0.9}\text{Pb}_{3.4}\text{Bi}_{5.1}\text{Sb}_{0.2}\text{S}_{11.6}$ , cosalite –  $\text{Cu}_{0.6}\text{Ag}_{0.4}\text{Pb}_4\text{Bi}_{4.9}\text{S}_{11.9}$ , junosite –  $\text{Cu}_{2.0}\text{Ag}_{0.1}\text{Pb}_{2.8}\text{Bi}_8\text{S}_{15.6}$ , cannizzarite –  $\text{Cu}_{0.1}\text{Ag}_{0.3}\text{Pb}_{3.7}\text{Bi}_{5.8}\text{Sb}_{0.1}\text{S}_{12.6}$ , heyrovskýite –  $\text{Pb}_{6-2x}\text{Ag}_x\text{Bi}_{2+x}\text{S}_9$ , vikingite –  $\text{Pb}_{4.5-2x}\text{Ag}_x\text{Bi}_{2+x}\text{S}_{7.5}$ , galenobismutite –  $\text{PbBi}_2\text{S}_5$ , bismuthinite derivatives (pekoite, gladite, salzburgite, paarite, krupkaite, lindströmite, emilite, hammarite, friedrichite, aikinite), emplectite –  $\text{CuBiS}_2$ , wittichenite –  $\text{Cu}_3\text{BiS}_3$  and numerous tellurides and sulphotellurides outline the paragenetical complexities of this occurrence (Fig. 23).

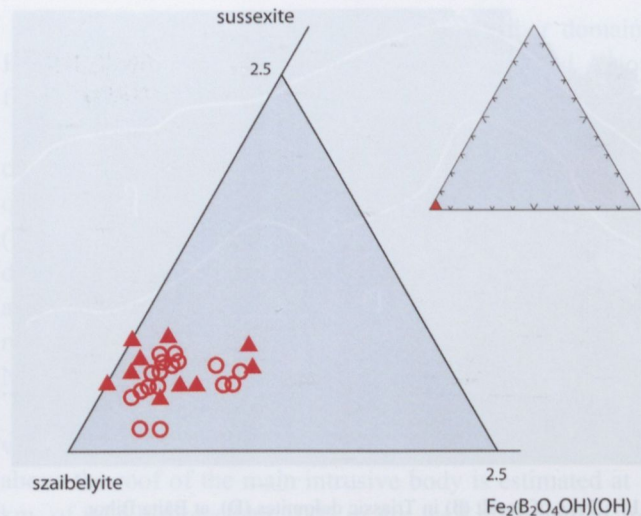


Fig. 22. Plots of compositions obtained by wet chemical analysis (triangles) and by electron microprobe analysis (circles), indicating the position of szaibélyite from Băița Bihor in the szaibélyite–sussexite– $\text{Fe}_2(\text{B}_2\text{O}_4\text{OH})(\text{OH})$  solid-solution series (redrawn from Marincea, 2001).

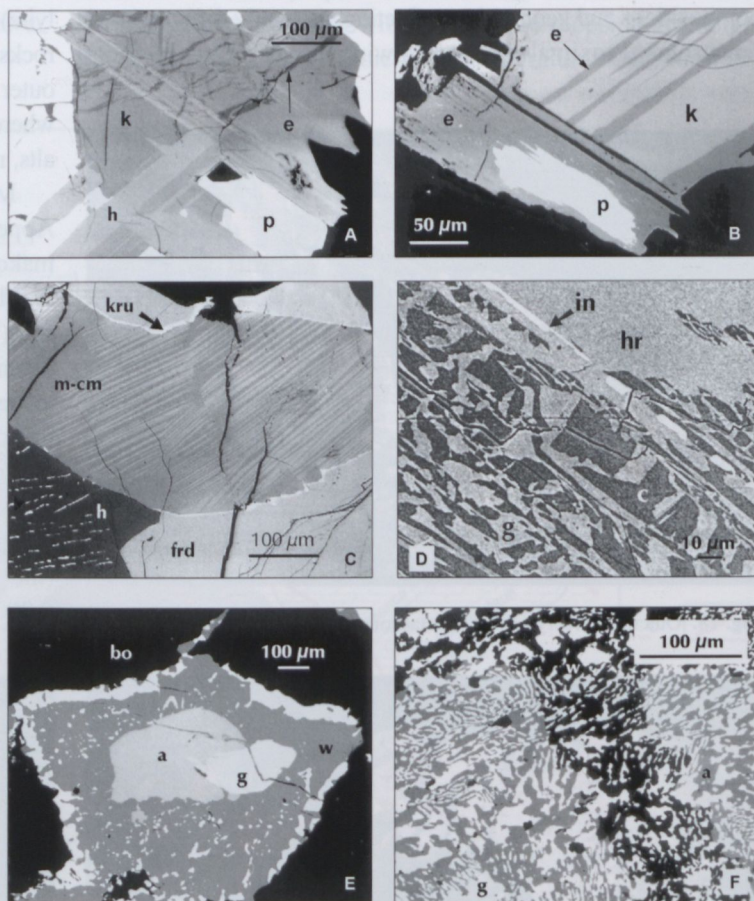


Fig. 23. BSE images of bismuth sulphosalt assemblages from Băița Bihor. A) Fine parallel intergrowths of hodrushite (h) and kupčikite (k) associated with padérite (p); emplectite (e) is a late replacing phase and only affects kupčikite. B) Late replacement of padérite (p) and kupčikite (k) by emplectite (e). C) Exsolution of makovickyite–cupromakovickyite (m-cm) associated with hodrushite (h), krupkaite (kru) and friedrichite (frd). D) Decomposition of heyrovskýite (hr) into cosalite (c) and galena (g); the white inclusions are ingodite (i). E) Composite grains with aikinite (a) core surrounded by galena (g) and wittichenite (w) exsolution, in bornite (bo). F) Vermicular intergrowths of aikinite (a) wittichenite (w) and galena (g).



## Day 2

## 2.2 Field stop 2 – Magnesian borates in the skarns of Dealul Gruiului – Pietroasa.

**Coordinates:** 46°38'6.27"N – 22°30'35.48"E, elevation 312 m

The occurrence is located in a large area of magnesian hornfels at the contact between Pietroasa granitoid body and Anisian dolostones belonging to Codru nappe system, close to the confluence of Aleu and Sebișel (Fig. 24). The Pietroasa magmatic body is one of the most important banatitic massifs in Northern Apuseni Mts. and will be shortly visited in Pietroasa quarry (Fig. 25), on Crișul Pietros Valley, prior to reaching the borate occurrence on Aleu Valley. The massif has been assigned to the second magmatic cycle (Table 1) in the Apuseni Mts. (Ștefan *et al.*, 1988). Rocks range from granites to quartz diorites, but granodiorites are predominant (Istrate & Udubașă, 1980; Ionescu 1996; see also Stop 2 in Ionescu &

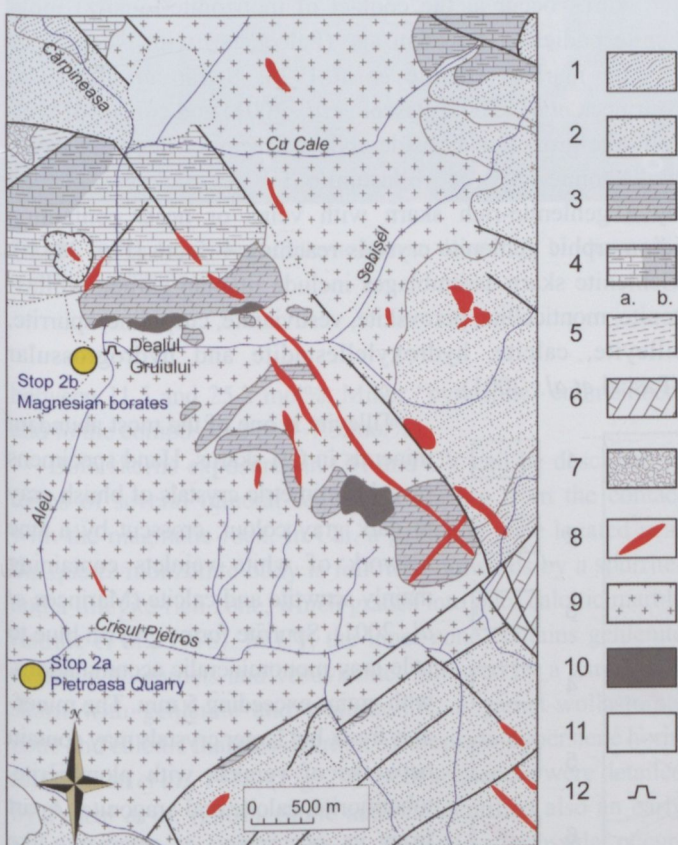
Hoeck, 2010). Igneous (coarse granodiorites, microgranodiorites, dolerites, diorites), regional metamorphic (quartzite, chlorite schists, amphibolites, gneisses) and sedimentary (graywackes, sandstones, carbonate rocks, clays) xenoliths (Fig. 25, inset), ranging in size from centimetres to tens of meters, are abundant in the peripheral parts of the intrusion (e.g. Stoicovici & Sălăgean, 1970; Ștefan *et al.*, 1988; Ionescu, 1996a; Ionescu & Hoeck, 2010).

The intrusion of the granodioritic magma into the surrounding Mesozoic dolomites, limestones and other sediments generated extended and complex contact aureoles, comprising hornfels, skarns and hydrated metasomatic rocks.

Magnesian skarns with forsterite, diopside and garnet develop discontinuously along the contacts between the granodiorite body and Anisian dolostones (Ionescu, 1996a,b). Periclase, spinel and scheelite are common accessories of such skarns. A large number of hydrated minerals, such as vesuvianite, phlogopite, epidote, talc, brucite, illite, serpentine minerals and zeolites a.o. accompany skarn assemblages. Younger veins with quartz, magnesite, sepiolite, calcite, pyrite, pyrrhotite, sphalerite, chalcopryrite, galenobismutite, and galena are also common.

Moderate boron-fluorine metasomatism affects the hornfels groundmass. The composition of hornfels is dominated by calcite and dolomite and reflects the nature of the premetamorphic Anisian-Norian sedimentary involved in the contact processes. Magnesium content ranges from 0.68 to 5.12 mol%  $\text{MgCO}_3$  in calcite and from 49.83 to 51.02 mol%  $\text{MgCO}_3$  in dolomite (Marincea, 1993). Beside carbonates, forsterite, spinel, clinohumite, chondrodite, tremolite, phlogopite, clinocllore and serpentines are the common components of magnesian hornfels. Instead, calcic hornfels contain apophyllite, wollastonite and epidote.

Boron metasomatized areas contain ludwigite, szaibélyite and suanite. Ludwigite occurs as millimetric, needle-like crystals in nodular or fibro-radiary aggregates, disseminated in the carbonate mass. Szaibélyite is a magnesian end-member of the



**Fig. 24.** Simplified geological map of Pietroasa area (redrawn after Bleahu *et al.*, 1985; Marincea, 2006). 1) Permian schistose clays and sandstones; 2) Lower Triassic quartzitic sandstones; 3) Anisian recrystallized dolostones; 4) Ladinian–Norian, a – black cherty limestones, b – recrystallized; 5) Lower Lurassic marls, clays, limestones; 6) Barremian–Aptian limestones; 7) Upper Cretaceous breccias with clay-sandstone matrix; 8) Upper Cretaceous dykes (rhyolites, granodiorites, (micro)granites, andesites); 9) Upper Cretaceous banatitic intrusive rocks (granodiorites, granites); 10) Skarns; 11) Quaternary deposits; 12) Mine adit.



**Fig. 25.** Granodiorite quarry at Pietroasa. The detail in the inset shows microdiorite xenolith ( $\mu\delta$ ) in granodiorite ( $\gamma\delta$ ).



szaibélyite-sussexite series. It typically occurs with a fibrous habit in the inner most zones of the boron-bearing sequences, where makes up to 60% of the rock volume (Fig. 26). Anhedral to subhedral relics of suanite up to 1 mm in length and 0.5 mm in width occur frequently in the szaibélyite masses, which are normally bordered by dolomite (Marincea, 2006). Suanite shows no significant deviation from its  $Mg_2B_2O_5$  composition.

Retrogressive replacements of suanite by szaibélyite, of chondrodite by serpentine and of spinel by clinocllore are widespread. It is estimated that suanite formed within a range of temperatures between 350 and 500-550 °C. In view of retrogressed suanite and spinel (transformed in szaibélyite and clinocllore, respectively), the maximum pressure must have been lower than 3 kbar. The absence of calcium borates, suggests, however, that the pressure must have exceeded 0.6 kbar (Marincea, 2006).



Fig. 26. Szaibélyite hand specimen. Dealul Gruiului, Pietroasa.

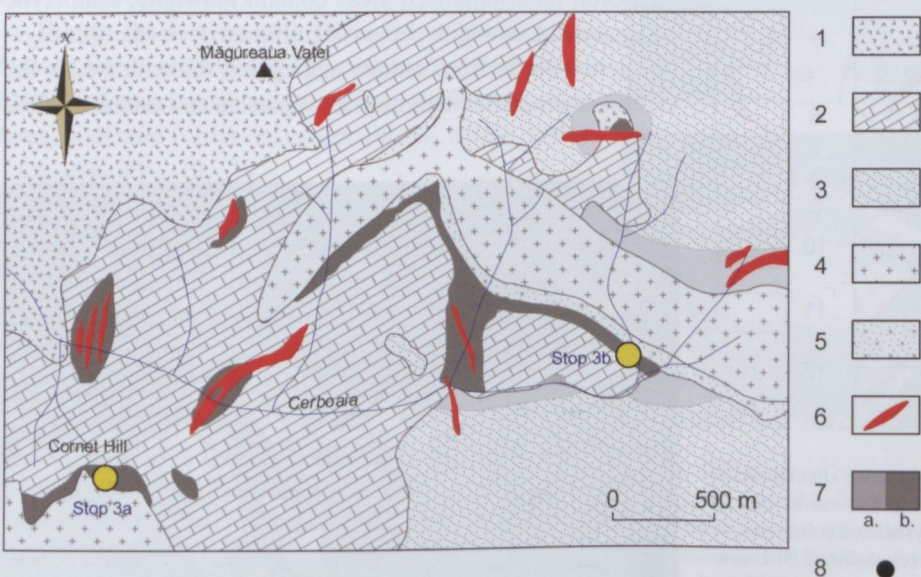


Fig. 27. Schematic geological map of Măgurea Văței area (redrawn after Ștefan *et al.*, 1978). 1) Mesozoic ophiolites; 2) Upper Jurassic recrystallized limestones; 3) Upper Cretaceous clays, sandstones and conglomerates; 4) Banatites: monzonites, monzodiorites; 5) quartz-monzonites; 6) monzonite dykes; 7) a. Pyroxene hornfels, b. Calcic skarns.

Among boron affected areas, large brucite-bearing zones occur in Anisian dolomitic marbles. The contact of granodiorites with the Anisian dolomites shows a zoned structure *i.e.* a transition from Mg-skarns to brucitic zones and finally to dolomites. Brucite-bearing zones occur only at some distances from the contact and are irregular, sometimes lens-shaped. They range from several metres up to tens of metres in width and from tens to hundreds of metres in length (Ionescu & Hoeck, 2005).

### 2.3 Field stop 3 – High-temperature calcic skarns at Cornet Hill and Cerboia Valley (Măgurea Văței area).

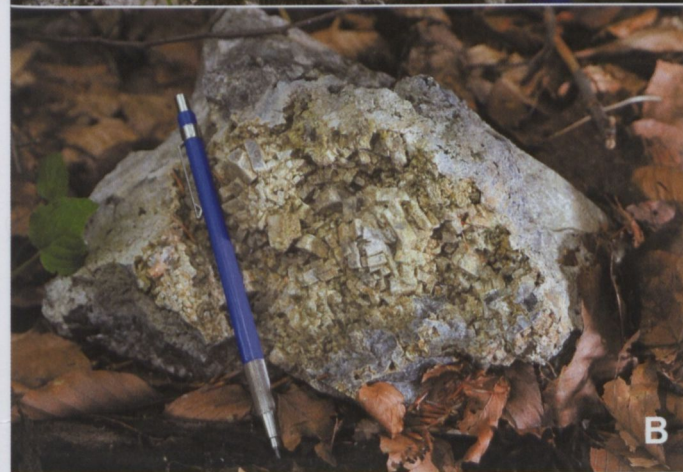
**Coordinates:** 46°13'40.61"N – 22°31'17.86"E, elevation 453 m

The high-temperature skarn occurrence at Măgurea Văței is one of the very few of the kind in the BMMB, but definitely the most spectacular exhibit of gehlenite, tilleyite and spurrite. Two skarn outcrops will be visited during this stop: Cornet Hill (CH) and Cerboia Valley (CV) (Fig. 27).

Skarns occur at the contact of monzonite-(quartz) monzonite bodies of Ypresian age (Paleocene) with Neojurassic calcitic marbles (Istrate *et al.*, 1978; Ștefan *et al.*, 1978; Marincea *et al.*, 2001; Pascal *et al.*, 2001) and consist of wollastonite-grossular-diopside endoskarns and tilleyite-spurrite-wollastonite (CH) or wollastonite (CV) exoskarns, separated by a gehlenite-rich skarn with veins or nests containing idiomorphic gehlenite crystals reaching 4–5 cm (Fig. 28a,b). Gehlenite skarn assemblages include titanian garnet, wollastonite, monticellite, perovskite, vesuvianite, cuspidine, spurrite, tilleyite, calcite, hydroxyllellstadite and hydrogrossular (Pascal *et al.*, 2001).

Tilleyite is one of the most abundant minerals in CH skarns. Hand specimens reveal centimetric crystals of bluish gray to dark gray colour, crosscut by a fine network of white veinlets containing mainly scawtite and calcite (Marincea *et al.*, 2001). Spurrite forms greyish blue to pale gray monomineralic accumulations, with grains exceeding 5 mm. The mineral is fresh, but larger crystals may contain networks of veinlets with plumbièrite, tobermorite, calcite and aragonite. Apart from its occurrence as pegmatite-like veins and nests, gehlenite develops as clusters interstitial to tilleyite, or embedded in a matrix of vesuvianite which invades along cleavage planes. Åkermanite content in gehlenite varies between 25.7 and 40.9 mol% (*op. cit.*). Several generations of grossular have been identified, with andradite content ranging

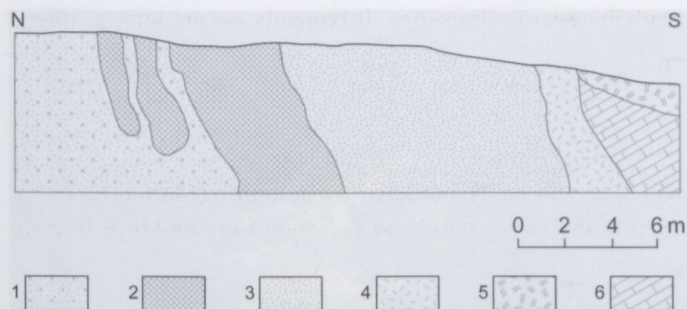




**Fig. 28.** a) Hand specimen of tilleyite-spurrite skarn (CH). b) Idiomorphic crystals of gehlenite (CV).

between 11.5 and 25.2 mol%. Minor “pyralspite” endmembers add to the composition (0.8–7.5 mol%).

Both skarns exposures in CH and CV can be described in terms of several mineral sequences starting from the contact with the magmatic rock. In CH, a gehlenite zone located near the quartz-monzonite body is followed outwards by a spurrite- and a tilleyite-rich zone, which grades into pure calcitic marble (Istrate *et al.*, 1978). In CV, the inner zone contains gehlenite skarns with garnets and vesuvianite, followed by a garnet-rich skarn with gehlenite and wollastonite, a garnet-wollastonite zone and calcitic marbles overlain by diopside-hypersthene hornfels (Ștefan *et al.*, 1978) (Fig. 29). Both sequences were detailed by Pascal *et al.* (2001). Same authors identified also an early skarn assemblage with aluminian diopside and grossular occurring either as veinlets in marble or as relics in endoskarns and interpreted it as a result of a CO<sub>2</sub>-rich fluid circulation inducing depletion of Si, Fe, Na and K while leaving inert Mg, Al and Ti in place. A subsequent high temperature (750 °C) fluid precipitated gehlenite and titanian garnet on previously formed endoskarns and spurrite – wollastonite (CH) or wollastonite (CV) exoskarns. Pascal *et al.* (2001) estimated a CO<sub>2</sub> pressure lower than 16 bars (CH) and 26 bars (CV), and a H<sub>2</sub>O pressure



**Fig. 29.** Skarn zoning in Cerboaia Valley (redrawn after Ștefan *et al.*, 1978): 1) Quartz-monzonite; 2) Gehlenite skarn with vesuvianite and garnets; 3) Garnet skarn with gehlenite and wollastonite; 4) Garnet-wollastonite skarn; 5) Pyroxene hornfels; 6) Calcitic marble.

less than 750 bars. Leaching of Mg, Al and Ti from endoskarns and mobilization of Si and Ca induced new precipitation at the inner limit of exoskarns. The paragenetic sequence ascribable to this fluid ended with the deposition of tilleyite, which partly replaced spurrite and wollastonite (CH), and with high-temperature recrystallization (710 °C). Monticellite-gehlenite assemblages developed in the gehlenite-rich skarns, followed by vesuvianite ± wollastonite and grossular.

Clinopyroxene with extremely high content of CaTs (CaAl<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>6</sub>) and esseneite (CaFe<sup>3+</sup>AlSiO<sub>6</sub>) components has been recognized as veinlets and inclusions in the marble very close to the intrusive contact, or as very small inclusions in wollastonite-grandite skarns, close to the gehlenite skarn in Cerboaia Valley (Pascal *et al.*, 2005). Same authors described a similar occurrence in the gehlenite-rich skarn in Cornet Hill.

## 2.4 Field stop 4 – The Museum of Gold, Brad.

**Coordinates:** 46° 8' 7.23"N – 22°47' 38.90"E

The museum was founded in 1912 but many of the exhibits had been already part of a mineralogical collection ever since the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Initially, the museum had only native gold samples gathered from various mines in Brad region, but later, through sample exchange and donation, the collection diversified both mineralogically and geographically.

The total number of samples is estimated at 2500, of which approximately 1000 are native gold, many of unusual size and morphology (Fig. 30). The long history of mining in the Golden Quadrilateral of Apuseni Mts. is well documented in the museum. A remarkable collection of documentary photographs by Basil Roman, showing mining activities before the Second World War is also on display.

The museum hosts also a systematic mineralogical collection, stressing upon characteristic local occurrences and type localities (nagyágite, sylvanite, native tellurium, pseudobrookite). By the time of drafting this guide, the museum was still under a long-delayed renovation.



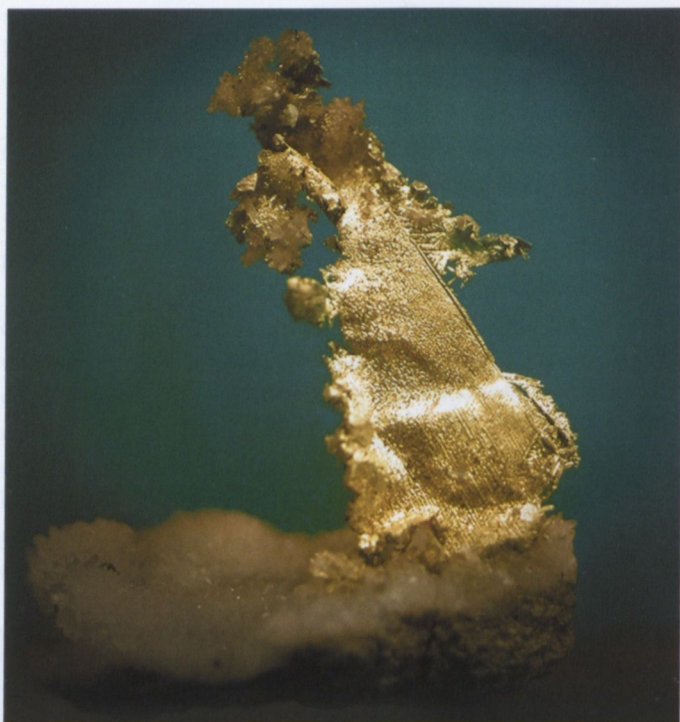


Fig. 30. Gold leaf (approx. height 6 cm). The Museum of Gold, Brad.

## 2.5 Field stop 5 – St. Mary's church, 13th century – Sântămăria Orlea

**Coordinates:** 45°35'1.72"N – 22°57'56.51"E

St. Mary's church was founded in the late 13<sup>th</sup> century by princes belonging to the famous Căndești (Kendeffi) family. The sanctuary was meant to serve a Roman Catholic community of settlers. Soon after foundation and until the mid-16<sup>th</sup> century, the church was used by the local Greek Orthodox population. A first layer of interior painting of Byzantine inspiration dates from this period. By 1559, documents mention that the church changed cult again, and that religious service was given by a Reformed priest named Martin ([crestinortodox.ro](http://crestinortodox.ro))

The architecture points to late Romanic style with added influences of early Gothic (Fig. 31). The interior hosts a vast mural painting ensemble dating mainly from three different periods and combining Byzantine and Italian Renaissance influences. The first paintings depicted ten Catholic consecration crosses, later covered by 14<sup>th</sup> century Byzantine paintings in reddish-brown hues (Fig. 32). The altar painting, showing six of the Apostles, is believed to date back to the 15<sup>th</sup> century and to share some late Byzantine influences. Successive paintings added to these early decorations, including a scene on the right side of the entrance, showing St. Elizabeth of Hungary.

The church is one of the most interesting examples of overlapping and coexisting Byzantine and Latin history, iconography, styles and inscriptions.



Fig. 31. St. Mary's church in Sântămăria Orlea, late 13<sup>th</sup> century.

## 2.6 Field stop 6 – Densuș Church – 13th century

**Coordinates:** 45°34'52.21"N – 22°48'29.72"E

The Orthodox church from Densuș (Fig. 33) represents one of the oldest Christian sanctuaries in Romania (Rusu, 2008). Based on late Romanesque and early Gothic architecture, the church was dated in the second half of the 13<sup>th</sup> century (Rusu, 2008; Rusu & Burnichioiu, 2008). Its origins are however controversial. Some scholars believed that the initial sanctuary was a mausoleum dedicated to general Longinus Maximus who was killed during the Roman-Dacian wars, whereas others considered that it was a temple dedicated to Mars. The new archaeological researches concluded that there are no antique antecedents for the building, except for some ashlar taken for a neighbouring Roman villa (Rusu, 2008).

Surely, the church has undergone numerous modifications, especially at the end of the 13<sup>th</sup> century. The building materials are most diverse and unusual, especially in what regards





Fig. 32. 14<sup>th</sup> century mural painting in St. Mary's church, Sântămăria Orlea.

the borrow sources: alluvial boulders, limestones, brick work with Roman inscriptions, fragments of Roman buildings and monuments, columns, zoomorphic ornaments, funeral stones, sewage pipes, *etc.*, most probably taken from the ruins of Ulpia Traiana Sarmizegetusa nearby (Fig. 34).

The church has Roman style architecture with early Gothic influences. It gives the impression of a surprisingly large interior when compared with the overall exterior dimensions. Interior Byzantine painting by an artisan named Stefan, dates from the mid-15<sup>th</sup> century.

## 2.7 Field stop 7

– Ulpia Traiana Sarmizegetusa – the Roman capital city of Dacia, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> centuries.

**Coordinates:** 45°31'5.06"N – 22°47'12.16"E

The historical site of Ulpia Traiana Sarmizegetusa preserves the remains of the first Roman capital city of Dacia (Figs. 35 and 36). The settlement was founded around 106–110 A.D, by the first governor of the province, Terentius Scaurianus, soon after Emperor Trajan conquered Dacia. The place chosen for building the new administrative centre of the colony was that of the former strategic military camp of the V<sup>th</sup> Macedonica Legion.

During Emperor Hadrianus (117–138 AD) the city took the name of Ulpia Traiana Augusta Dacica Sarmizegetusa in celebration of the Dacian capital Sarmizegetusa Regia, located approximately 40 km to the east. The origin of the name Sarmizegetusa could only be speculated as the ancient Dacian language was lost. A probable explanation was that it came from “zermi” (rock, height) and “zeget” (palisade, fence, fortification), thus suggesting a name for a “High Fortress” which characterized accurately the geographical position of King Decebal's fortified city in Orăştie Mts. From 222 and until 235 AD the city was ranked as *metropolis* and reached a population of approximately 25,000 ([cimec.ro/Arheologie/UlpiaTraiana/descriere/sit.html](http://cimec.ro/Arheologie/UlpiaTraiana/descriere/sit.html))

The archaeological complex includes the ruins of all major edifices of the former capital: the Forum, the amphitheatre, palaces, workshops and residential buildings.



Fig. 33. Densuş church, 13<sup>th</sup> century. General view.





Fig. 34. Roman columns added to the construction of Densuș church.



Fig. 36. Fragments of Roman inscriptions and other archaeological exhibits at Ulpia Traiana Sarmizegetusa historical site.



Fig. 35. Roman ruins at Ulpia Traiana Sarmizegetusa.

## Day 3

### 2.8 Field stop 8

#### – Banatite outcrop, Bocșa

**Coordinates:** 45°22'46.43"N – 21°44'37.34"E, Elevation 163 m

The field stop is intended to give a first sight of banatitic rocks at their *locus typicus*, in Banat region. A drive escarpment on the left bank of Bârzava river shows the relations between successive intrusive phases belonging to phase B (Table 1).

The outcrop (Fig. 37) displays ocular gneisses of Tâlva Drenii formation (belonging to the Supraetic Nappe), crossed by a first generation of small dykes of basic igneous rocks, reaching up to 1–2 m in width (labelled with number 2 in Fig. 37). The dykes are followed by a second magmatic stage with granodiorites, which

dislocate and include parts of previously emplaced rocks. The dykes and enclaves consist of porphyritic microdiorites with large zoned plagioclase phenocrysts within a microgranular groundmass of plagioclase and amphibole. Some concentrations of actinolitic amphibole could represent pseudomorphs after pyroxenes. Quartz xenoliths with actinolite coronas may also be found. A certain degree of autometamorphism is suggested by the alteration of the primary amphiboles and by the argillization of the plagioclase phenocrysts.

The granodiorites show typical features for the Bocșa<sub>3</sub> phase. Here, they exhibit a marginal facies and a porphyritic texture. They contain recurrently zoned plagioclase phenocrysts, biotite, actinolite and subordinately, corroded quartz within a groundmass of K-feldspar, plagioclase and quartz (Russo-Săndulescu, 1993).

### 2.9 Field stop 9

#### – Gruescu mineralogical collection, Ocna de Fier

**Coordinates:** 45°20'36.66"N – 21°46'38.18"E

*General remarks on Ocna de Fier area.* This third day of the RO-5 field trip will be entirely devoted to the renowned skarn occurrence of Ocna de Fier. The mineral wealth of the village inspired the local official heraldry and Ocna de Fier is probably the only locality in Romania to have chosen mineralogical symbolism in its city coat of arms (Fig. 38). Although the literature often mentions “Dognecea–Ocna de Fier” banatites, skarns or skarn deposits, the southern part of the area, *i.e.*



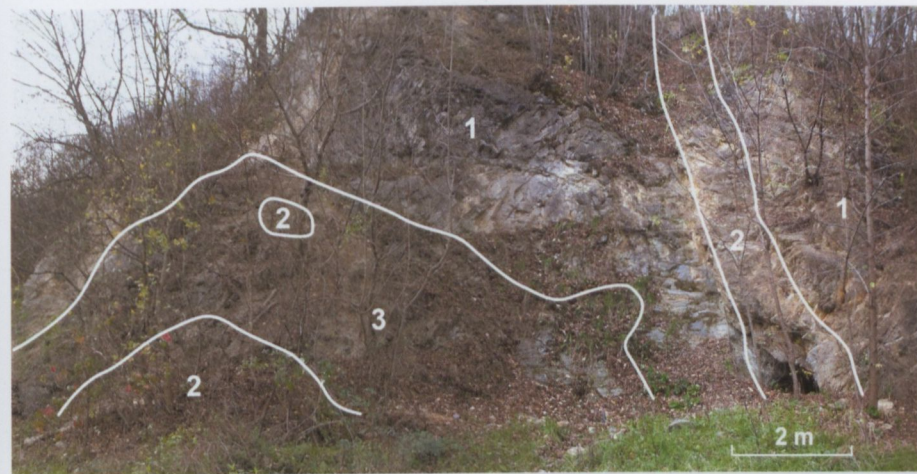


Fig. 37. Field relations between ocular gneisses of the Supragetic Nappe (1) and banatitic microdiorite dykes (2) and granodiorites (3) (after Ilinca *et al.*, 1993).



Fig. 38. Crystallographic heraldry at the entrance in Ocna de Fier.

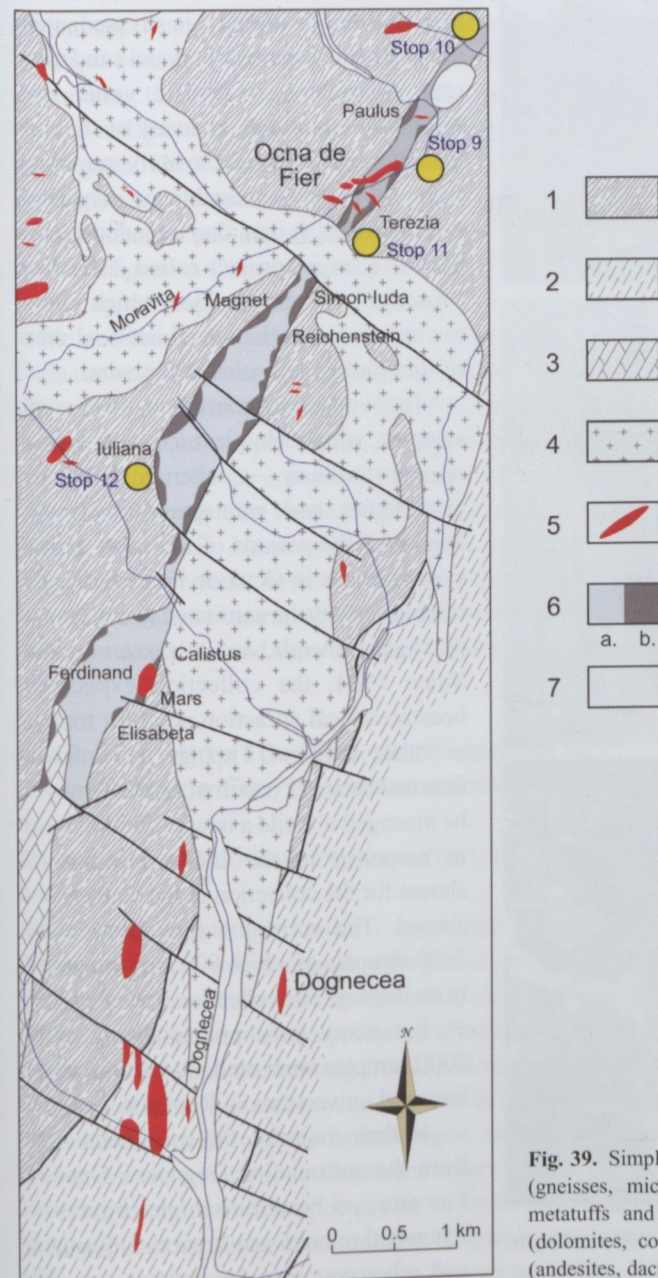


Fig. 39. Simplified geological map of Ocna de Fier–Dognecea (after Vlad, 1974): 1) Precambrian (gneisses, micaschists, amphibolites); 2) Devonian–Carboniferous (metapellites, metasiltites, metatuffs and isolated bodies of granodiorites and gabbros); 3) Jurassic–Middle Cretaceous (dolomites, conglomerates, sandstones); 4) Banatites: plutonic rocks (granodiorites); 5) Dykes (andesites, dacites, rhyolites, lamprophyres); 6) a – Marbles, b – Skarns; 7) Quaternary deposits.

Dognecea will not be accessible to our route. However, the two localities shared largely similar magmatic and contact metamorphism evolution.

The basement of Dognecea–Ocna de Fier consists of Precambrian and Lower to Middle Palaeozoic crystalline schists of the Bocşa Nappe (belonging to the Supragetic unit) *i.e.*, the Bocşa–Drimoxa formation. The sedimentary formations show typical features for the ridge-type evolution; they are represented by a discontinuous and condensed cover of mainly Cretaceous (Barremian–Aptian) iron-deficient carbonate rocks forming a narrow, N–S extended, syncline structure (Ezeriş–Cârnecea) (Fig. 39).

Banatites belonging to the Bocşa<sub>3</sub> phase (Table 1), occur within a large granodioritic body reaching a maximum width of 5 km. The main intrusion is accompanied by small bodies and enclaves of more basic rocks (monzodiorites, quartz diorites), which might represent previous intrusive phases with respect to the granodiorites. Vein rocks subsequent to the main intrusion, *i.e.* andesites, lamprophyres, dacites and rhyolites (Russo-Săndulescu *et al.*, 1986a) are also discordantly spread across the area.

Around the main granodioritic body, various thermal contact associations, as well as pyro- and hydrometasomatic assemblages developed. Non-carbonate rocks were partly replaced, forming silica-aluminous hornfels and locally, grossular-bearing lenses. On the expense of carbonate rocks, mainly garnet, wollastonite and pyroxene skarns formed. These calcic exoskarns are generally banded and parallel to the contact between the crystalline schists or igneous bodies and the calcitic marbles. Subsequent retrograde hydrothermal alteration products of the skarn assemblages together with iron oxide and sulphide mineralization are widely spread in the area.

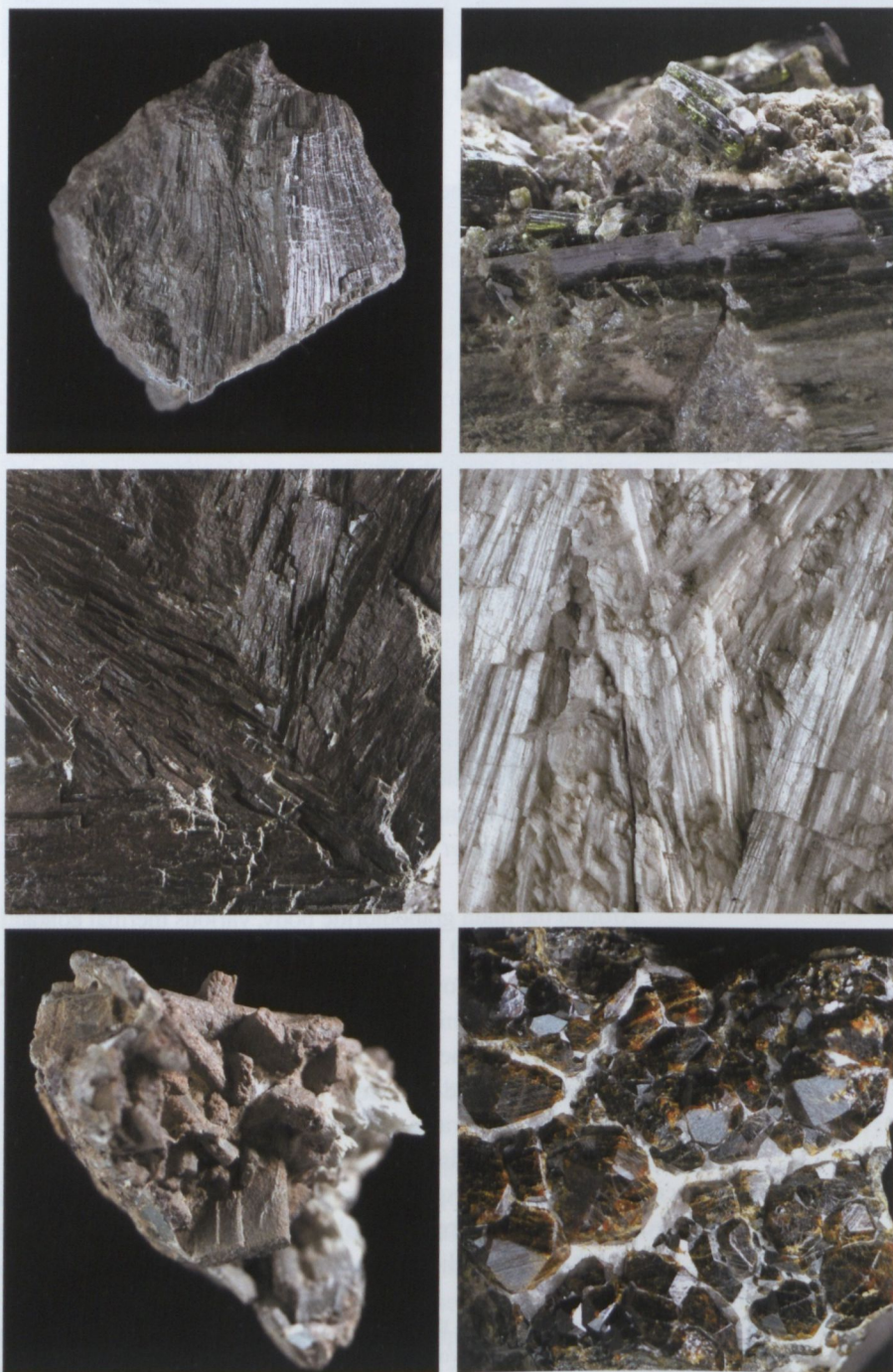


About 110 minerals were described in Dognecea–Ocna de Fier (see Appendix 1), many of them quite rare or sole occurrences in Romania. Ocna de Fier is the type locality for ludwigite and veszelyite. A modern description of ludwigite is provided by Marincea (1999). A historical review of mineral phases described at Ocna de Fier can be found in Ilina *et al.* (1993).

As in the case of Băița Bihor, rich Bi sulphosalt assemblages occur throughout the skarn deposit. Detailed mineralogical descriptions of various bismuthinite derivatives, minerals of the cuprobismutite family (padëraite, hodrushite, cuprobismutite), galenobismutite, lillianite homologues (hey-

rovskýite, lillianite), members of the pavonite homologous series (makovickyite, cupromakovickyite) as well as a comprehensive telluride and sulphotelluride association with kawazulite, bohdanowiczite, hessite, volynskite and their intergrowths, are given in Ciobanu & Cook (2000), Cook & Ciobanu (2001) and Ciobanu *et al.*, (2004). Cosalite, proudite, high-Ag neyite and felbertalite are also important members of the Bi sulphosalt assemblages.

Ocna de Fier remains one of the few skarn deposits where nice hand specimens of rare minerals can still be found and collected (Fig. 40).



**Fig. 40.** Selected images of hand specimens from Ocna de Fier (from above, left to right): ludwigite, epidote, hedenbergite, wollastonite, diopside, garnets.

*The mineralogical collection.* The private mineralogical collection of Constantin Gruescu (Fig. 41) was intended to host the most representative mineral samples gathered from local banatite contact aureoles. Although initially it stressed upon the aesthetic features of crystals and mineral aggregates, scientific value was implicitly contained, as many of the collected samples were the only remnants from no longer accessible or exhausted mining fields. It was also intended to be a part of a larger project called “The Iron Museum” of Ocna de Fier, which aimed towards a comprehensive historical view of the mining activities in the area.

The collection started in 1945 with samples, which Mr. Gruescu — a former mining foreman — inherited from his grandfather and great-grandfather who witnessed the periods of top most expansion of mines in Ocna de Fier. During the mining activity, he continued to collect and purchase minerals, and to preserve them. Since 1954, the collection expectedly became a local attraction point for tourists or other visitors. Though no financial returns have ever occurred to Mr. Gruescu, he managed to build a new exhibition room in response to the increasing interest shown for the collection in the country and abroad. The collection now hosts about 2300 samples of which 800 are permanently on display. The collection was even larger, but many donations totalizing about 2000 samples were made to various museums and universities in Romania.

In their majority, the specimens come from the surrounding Dognecea–Ocna de Fier area, yet beautiful samples from other renowned mineral occurrences in Romania and other countries are present, too. The





Fig. 41. Constantin Gruescu in his mineral collection at Ocna de Fier.

collection hosts over 100 calcite crystallographic forms and twinnings, many of them of quite impressive dimensions. Attractive samples of hematite with rare crystallographic forms resembling the well-known Ginevro and Capo Calamita occurrences in Elba, are specifically intergrown in “iron roses”-type aggregates. There are also spectacular magnetite pseudomorphs after garnet, concretionary magnetite aggregates in the form of “stalactitic curtains” and odd dolomite pseudomorphs after octahedral magnetite. Garnets are largely represented through a variety of morphological and chromatic aspects: melanite, demantoid and brown andradites. Diopside samples from the Simon Iuda ore body show large, perfectly shaped crystals, which made the subject of numerous studies. Huge crystals of phlogopite and many other rare minerals such as todorokite, manjiroite and palygorskite make the collection even more interesting. Special attention deserves also the ludwigite samples which were collected from their *locus typicus* (Magnet quarry). The most impressive specimens however, are the extremely rare co-axial twins of columnar quartz which sometimes develop along three different directions and show no apparent supporting point.

## 2.10 Field stop 10 – The skarn deposit at Ocna de Fier. Ursoanea mining waste dump

**Coordinates:** 45°20'58.80"N – 21°46'2.51"E, Elevation 270 m

The mining waste pile collects excavated material from a transport gallery which connects Dognecea and Ocna de Fier. The gallery practically crosses the entire skarn area so that its waste dump gathers a comprehensive suite of minerals and rocks of the two major mining fields. Among phlogopite, ludwigite and other minerals occurring only at Ocna de Fier, special attention deserves the hedenbergite and ilvaite samples which are characteristic to Dognecea zone.

Hedenbergite forms spectacular crystals and aggregates with typical fish-bone-like textures. Crystals are unusually large (up to 10 cm along *c* axis) with prevailing {100}, {010},

{110}, {021}, {001}, {221} and {101} forms. Chemical compositions given by Vlad & Vasiliu (1969) and Vlad (1974) indicate manganoan, magnesian-manganoan, ferrian-manganoan and ferrian-magnesian varieties of hedenbergite.

Ilvaite from Dognecea was firstly described by Vlad (1969) and re-examined by the same author in 1974. Wet chemical analysis by these authors indicated unusually large MnO contents. Ilinca *et al.* (2006) identified ilvaite samples systematically exceeding 0.5 *apfu* Mn, suggesting the presence of the recently discovered mineral manganilvaite (Zotov *et al.*, 2005, Bonev *et al.*, 2005). Average chemical composition (in wt%; parentheses read as average values and standard deviations, respectively) indicated: Si: 13.39–14.09 (13.92; 0.15), Al: 0.00–0.27 (0.09; 0.11), Fe: 32.88–34.53 (34.62; 0.64), Mn: 7.30–9.17 (7.85; 0.54), Mg: 0.00–0.26 (0.07; 0.10), Ca: 9.86–10.64 (10.26; 0.22). Manganilvaite from Dognecea is a *P* 2<sub>1</sub>/*a* polymorph (*a* 13.014 Å, *b* 8.846 Å, *c* 5.848 Å, *b* 90.34°) with significant ordering of Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Fe<sup>3+</sup> among Me11 and Me12 structural sites. Local paragenetical relations and various published correlations between the ordering parameter and the temperature of formation, suggest that Mn-ilvaite from Dognecea represents a reaction product of 6 hed + 4 mgt + 3 H<sub>2</sub>O → 6 ilvaite + ½ O<sub>2</sub>, formed at temperatures not exceeding 300 °C, and in conditions of relatively low *f*O<sub>2</sub>.

## 2.11 Field stop 11 – The skarn deposit at Ocna de Fier. Terezia quarry

**Coordinates:** 45°20'19.71"N – 21°46'7.61"E, Elevation 332 m

The quarry opens mainly calcic and magnesian skarns with superposed iron oxides (magnetite and hematite) and borate (ludwigite) mineralization. The host rock is represented by coarse-grained dolomite marbles. Old references mentioned by Codarcea (1931) and Kissling (1967) speak about native bismuth, bismuthinite, greenockite, sphalerite and stibnite.

The north-eastern wall of the quarry exhibits a broad picture of metasomatic zoning around a porphyritic diorite apophysis: diopside – andradite+diopside – ludwigite – serpentines (chrysotile, lizardite) – dolomitic marble. The iron ores were mined in the 19<sup>th</sup> century; they are located in andradite-dominant skarns where they form specific diffusion metasomatic intergrowths, described by Kissling (1967) as “orbicular” or “Liesegang textures”. Such textures consist of magnetite (frequently pseudomorph after garnet or hematite), hematite and calcite or dolomite.

The main mineralogical interest of Terezia quarry resides in skarn and magnesian or calc-magnesian pseudoskarn minerals such as diopside, phlogopite and palygorskite.

Diopside crystals provided many collection specimens. Their dimensions (up to 8 cm along *c*) favoured numerous crystallographic studies (e.g. Kissling, 1967, 1971). Frontal pinacoids {100}, lateral pinacoids {010} as well as third order



prisms species: {110}, {210} or {120} prevail among the 16 crystallographic forms described. Wet chemical analyses reported by Kissling (1967) show a relatively large isomorphism in the M1 sites where  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Mn^{2+}$  and  $Fe^{2+}$  share different participations.

Phlogopite from Terezia quarry was described by Rumpf (1874) who called it “*Magnesiaglimmer*”; later it was studied by Tschermak (1879), Jacob (1938) and Kissling (1967). Platy crystals reaching up to 10 cm, frequently form monomineralic aggregates and banded textures, which were interpreted by Kissling (1967) as Liesegang-type patterns. Chemical data refinement of Terezia quarry phlogopites revealed prevailing hydroxyphlogopite with up to 11.92 mol% fluorphlogopite and significant contents of annite–siderophyllite (up to 23.51 mol%) together with minor amounts of manganophyllite (up to 1.71 mol%). X-ray powder diffraction data suggest that the Terezia phlogopite is a  $2M_1$  polytype (Ilinca *et al.*, 1993).

Fibrous chrysotile is typically developed along the (001) cleavage planes in phlogopite and tends to form centripetal replacement zones resulting in the “chromatic zoning” described by Kissling (1967).

Palygorskite was identified by Kissling (1967) cavities of the coarse-grained dolomite. It overcoats scalenohedral calcite, suggesting deposition under low temperatures conditions. Palygorskite displays unusually large fibres of up to 1 cm in length.

## 2.12 Field stop 12 – The skarn deposit at Ocna de Fier. Iuliana quarry

**Coordinates:** 45°19'50.81"N – 21°44'54.76"E, Elevation 383 m

The quarry is located on the west slope of Ezeriș-Cârnecea syncline, south of Ocna de Fier. It is one of the largest mining works ever opened in the area (Fig. 42). Metasomatic zoning around a porphyritic granodiorite dyke can be observed on the eastern wall: andradite – tremolite – coarse-grained dolomite.



Fig. 42. Tremolite and hematite-rich area in Iuliana quarry, Ocna de Fier.

Nice specimens of hematite, magnetite, garnets and tremolite as well as ludwigite can easily be collected from the quarry. Unusual pseudomorphs of dolomite after octahedral magnetite, and of magnetite after andradite, have been described here. Most of the renowned “iron roses” of hematite originate in this place. Andradite usually displays cubic-trapesohedral {112} and rhombic-dodecahedral {110} crystals. “Incised” faces, due to adventive {112} forms superposed on {110} are frequent.

Tremolite is quite abundant and reaches unusual crystal sizes (up to 30 cm along *c* axis). It forms radiating or fan-like aggregates, commonly pseudomorphs after diopside. Old wet chemical analyses quoted by Kissling (1967) indicated a Fe-tremolite with 9.1 mol% ferroactinolite in solid solution.

Ludwigite occurs in a limited area on the eastern wall of the quarry close to the limit between skarns and dolomitic marble. The *locus typicus* for this mineral is the Magnet quarry, which is inaccessible now, but ludwigite from the Iuliana quarry shows remarkable similarities to the original material described by Tschermak (1874).

Detailed analytical data on ludwigites from both *loci* were published by Marincea (1999). The mineral occurs in the boron-bearing magnesian skarns, in a restricted association that includes calcite, forsterite (with 0.92–2.60% fayalite and 0.75–1.26% tephroite), magnetite (with 18.48–46.37% magnesioferrite) and clinohumite. Ludwigite is compositionally variable, with vonsenite ranging from 4.41 to 14.27 mol%, minor azoprote: up to 0.1 mol%  $(Mg, Fe^{2+})_2(Ti^{4+}, Mg)(BO_3)_2$ , and less than 6.55 mol%  $(Mg, Fe^{2+})_2Al(BO_3)_2$  in solid solution, and with minor Sn, Sb, Cr, Ni, Co, Mn and Zn. The compositional data, combined with information on the experimental synthesis of borates, indicate a temperature of crystallization at 600–650 °C and oxygen fugacities of  $10^{-18}$ – $10^{-14}$  atm.

## Day 4

### 2.13 Field stop 13 – The skarn occurrence in Ogașul Crișenilor, Oravița

**Coordinates:** 45° 2'49.01"N – 21°43'57.66"E, Elevation 398 m

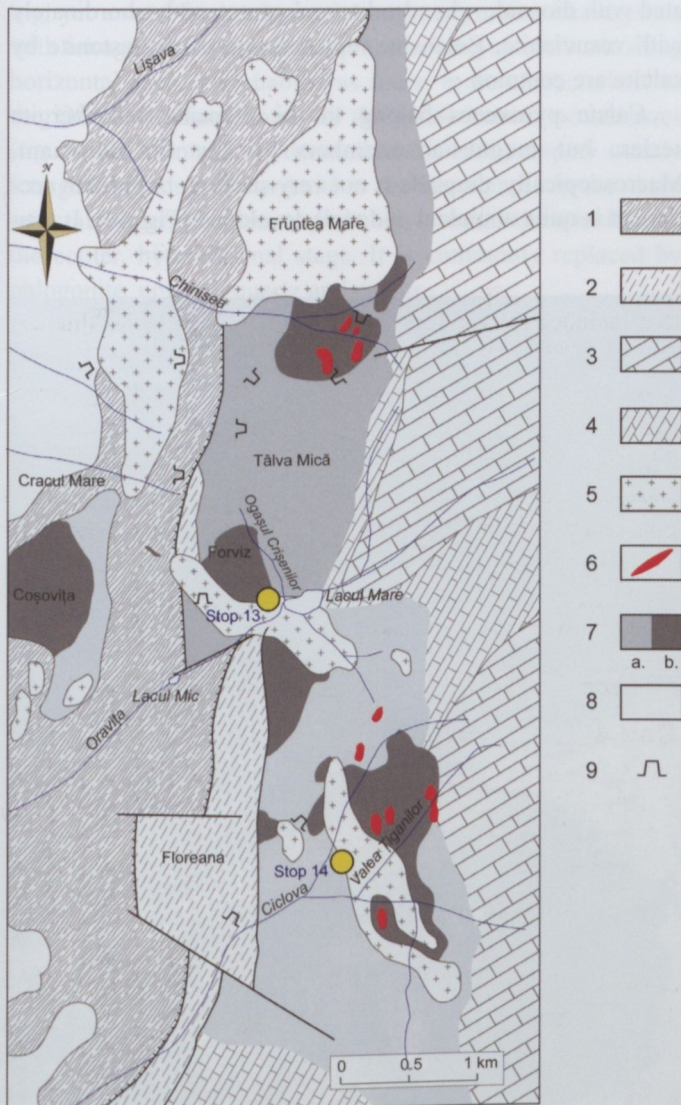
*General remarks on the Oravița-Ciclova area.* Crystalline schists of the Bocșa Nappe occur in the western most part of the region (Coșovița Hill) (Fig. 43). Micaceous gneisses and amphibolites of the Bocșița Drimoxa formation (Bocșa Nappe, Supragetic unit) are unconformably overlain by a thin layer of limestones which is largely similar to the ridge-type sequence from Ocna de Fier – Dognecea. Grandite skarns and calc-silicate hornfels are banded parallel to the contact between the crystalline schists and the marbles. With the exception of several small apophyses of fine-grained granodiorites, the pluton responsible for this western thermal aureole does not crop out.



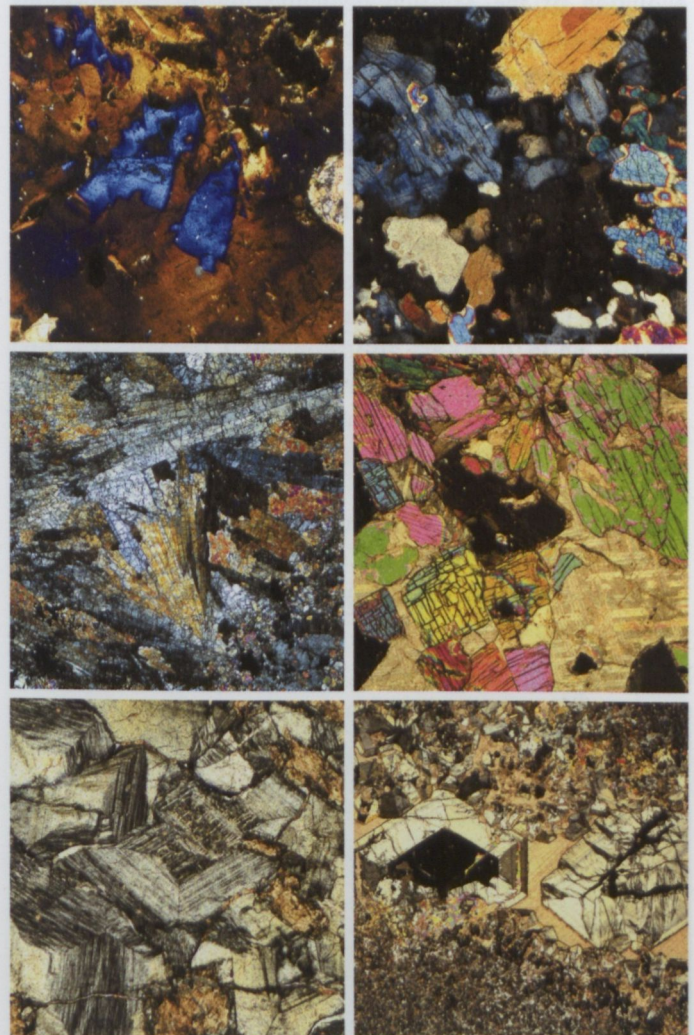
More significant contact metamorphism occurs east of Bocșa Nappe, where banatites penetrated a thick carbonate rock sequence belonging to the sedimentary cover of the Getic unit. As compared to the Ocna de Fier occurrence, the more diversified composition of the sedimentary paleosome (pure or cherty limestones, argillaceous limestones and marls), was the primary factor behind the skarn mineralogy which includes abundant Al- and Mg-rich calc-silicates. Several major banatitic bodies crop out in the area. They consist of early diorites, monzodiorites and isolated gabbros (Oravița Valley and Ciclova), and subsequent porphyritic granodiorites (Maidan and Tâlva Mică, north of Oravița Valley). Members of an ending sequence with dyke rocks (lampro-

phyres, andesites, syenites, alkali-granites, rhyolites and dacites) are randomly distributed throughout the main igneous bodies and the sedimentary formations. The diorite-gabbro banatites from Oravița Valley and Ciclova correlate well with products of the B<sub>3.1</sub> phase, whereas the north granodiorite intrusions are geochemically similar to the rocks of B<sub>3.2</sub> phase (Table 1; Russo-Săndulescu *et al.*, 1986c). Extensive hydrothermal alteration and related copper-dominant mineralization were recognized to accompany the banatitic intrusions.

More than 120 minerals were described at Oravița-Ciclova (see Appendix 1), with one case of type locality: hörnesite. Csiklovaite is another material firstly described at Ciclova and for some years quoted in relation with a type locality status (Koch, 1948). Though proved to represent a mixture of tetradymite and bismuthinite (Bayliss, 1991) and officially discredited, csiklovaite is still included in the IMA list of minerals (2009). Ilinca *et al.* (1993) published



**Fig. 43.** Geological sketch of Oravița - Ciclova area (modified after Năstăsescu *et al.*, 1975). 1) Precambrian (micaceous gneisses, chlorite-muscovite schists, amphibolites, quartzites, metagabbros); 2) Permian (sandstones, argillaceous schists); 3) Oxfordian-Tithonian (limestones, marls); 4) Berriasian-Aptian (limestones, marls, argillaceous limestones); 5) Upper Cretaceous - Paleocene: plutonic banatites (granodiorites, diorites, monzodiorites); 6) Dykes (andesites, syenites, alkali granites, rhyolites, dacites, lamprophyres); 7) a. Hornfels, recrystallized limestones, b. Skarns; 8) Pleistocene (alluvial deposits); 9) Old mining works.



**Fig. 44.** Selected microphotographs of skarns minerals from Oravița-Ciclova (from above, left to right): vesuvianite (Tiganilor Valley); gehlenite and diopside (Ogașul Crișenilor); wollastonite (Chinisea Valley); diopside (Tiganilor Valley); anisotropic garnets from Oravița and Ciclova, respectively. (Crossed polarizers, height of images approx. 5 mm).



a historical list of minerals described at Oravița Ciclova. The skarn deposit includes remarkable occurrences of high-temperature skarn minerals (gehlenite, Constantinescu *et al.*, 1998; Katona *et al.*, 2003), vesuvianite, wollastonite, garnets, scheelite (Fig. 44) and a rich assemblage of Bi sulphosalts including proudite, lillianite homologues, feltertalite, bismuthinite derivatives, cannizzarite, makovickyite–cupromakovickyite, kupčikite, emplectite, junoite, cosalite and various tellurides and sulphotellurides (Ilinca, 1998).

**The skarn occurrence.** The Lacul Mare-Ogașul Crișenilor area represents the “hottest” thermal metamorphic and metasomatic point in Banat. Monomineralic Mg-rich gehlenite ( $\sim\text{Gh}_{50}\text{Ak}_{46}\text{Na-mel}_4$ ) skarns occur along the contact of a diorite intrusion (Katona *et al.*, 2003). Gehlenite is associated with diopside, granditic garnet, monticellite, and seldom with areas of magnetite exsolution of magnetite in the core zone of melilite grains. Monticellite, spurrite (or tilleyite, afwillite, kilchoanite) and garnet, occur during the retrograde evolution of the Mg-rich gehlenite toward compositions richer in Al. The retrograde reactions end up with complete transformation of gehlenite into vesuvianite and clintonite. These local modifications are interpreted as nearly closed-system (except for Na and Fe) retrograde reactions at moderate temperature (500–600 °C), controlled by the localized presence of small amounts of fluid at low pressure (*op. cit.*). Gehlenite may incidentally be found as millimetric grains of dark green colour, within a groundmass of diopside and clay minerals. Garnets, vesuvianite and clintonite (green, platy crystals, up to 2 cm) are also abundant. Clintonite was first described here by Popescu & Constantinescu (1977). Previous authors might not have failed to notice this occurrence, but most probably the mineral was considered phlogopite. Minor amounts are also known from some old waste dumps, north of Oravița (*e.g.* the Clementi gallery).

The late hydrothermal stages produced significant amounts of epidote, calcite, quartz, K-feldspar and zeolites (stilbite, thomsonite).



Fig. 45. Weathered monzodiorite exposure in Țiganilor Valley, Ciclova.

## 2.14 Field stop 14 – The skarns and banatites in Țiganilor Valley, Ciclova

**Coordinates:** 45° 1'39.50"N – 21°44'22.72"E, Elevation 335 m

In the north-eastern part of Ciclova, calc-magnesian skarns with wollastonite, diopside, chondrodite, grandite, vesuvianite and minor phlogopite, are largely exposed along contacts of a monzodiorite-diorite banatitic body (Figs. 45 and 46) with Lower to Middle Cretaceous argillaceous-carbonate rocks. Skarns assemblages show strong disequilibria with scarce or no paragenetically intergrown phases.

Wollastonite forms large, prismatic or needle-shaped crystals sometimes in monomineralic concentrations. It is associated with diopside, chondrodite and garnet, and subordinately with vesuvianite. Extensive replacements of wollastonite by calcite are common.

Calcic pyroxenes belong to the diopside–hedenbergite series, but magnesian members are by far dominant. Macroscopically, diopside is not very striking, but in thin sections it is quite abundant and well developed (Fig. 44). It usu-



Fig. 46. Skarns outcrops on the northern slope of Țiganilor Valley, Ciclova.



ally replaces wollastonite, and is in its turn substituted by garnet and vesuvianite. Retrograde hydrothermal metamorphism of diopside resulted in calcite and quartz.

Two generations of garnet of significant chemical contrast occur in Țiganilor Valley: one with Al-rich composition, forming euhedral, anomalous anisotropic crystals, and another represented by isotropic andradite which frequently cuts and replace the grossular-dominant members. Locally, some odd myrmekitic intergrowths between andradite and K-feldspar are accessible to microscopic observation.

Vesuvianite is the most abundant skarn mineral. Țiganilor Valley is in fact, the most spectacular occurrence of this mineral in Romania. It appears as minute, yellowish-green prismatic crystals or compact, brownish masses. The most striking, yet not so frequent, are the huge, pegmatite-like crystals with tetragonal-bipyramidal habit, reaching up to 10 cm along horizontal axes. This habit was found to be characteristic to the Oravița-Ciclova zone, as the other known occurrences (e.g. Sasca Montană – Constantinescu, 1980) display mainly tetragonal prisms. Vesuvianite is the latest phase in the skarn mineral sequence and most probably, it makes the transition to the cooler, hydrothermal stage. It is commonly replaced by phlogopite, epidote, quartz and calcite.

Isolated specimens from the aureoles of several vein bodies of syenites, exhibit unusual fibrous-radial aggregates of vesuvianite, apparently pseudomorph after a fibre-shaped mineral. X-ray powder diagrams of such samples pointed to major vesuvianite and traces of serpentine and szaibélyite (Constantinescu *et al.*, 1988b).

Țiganilor Valley is the second major occurrence in Romania, of a high-temperature clinopyroxene with extremely high Al and Fe<sup>3+</sup> contents (Pascal *et al.*, 2005). The occurrence is located at the contact between marble (now exoskarn) and diorite (now endoskarn) and it is strikingly similar to the one described by the same authors in Cornet Hill (Field stop 3). The compositional range of the pyroxene is 0.40 to 0.63 <sup>IV</sup>Al *apfu*, compared with 0.30-0.72 in Valea Cerboia and 0.30-0.72 in Cornet Hill.

## 2.15 Field stop 15 – The porphyry copper ore deposit at Suvorov, Moldova Nouă

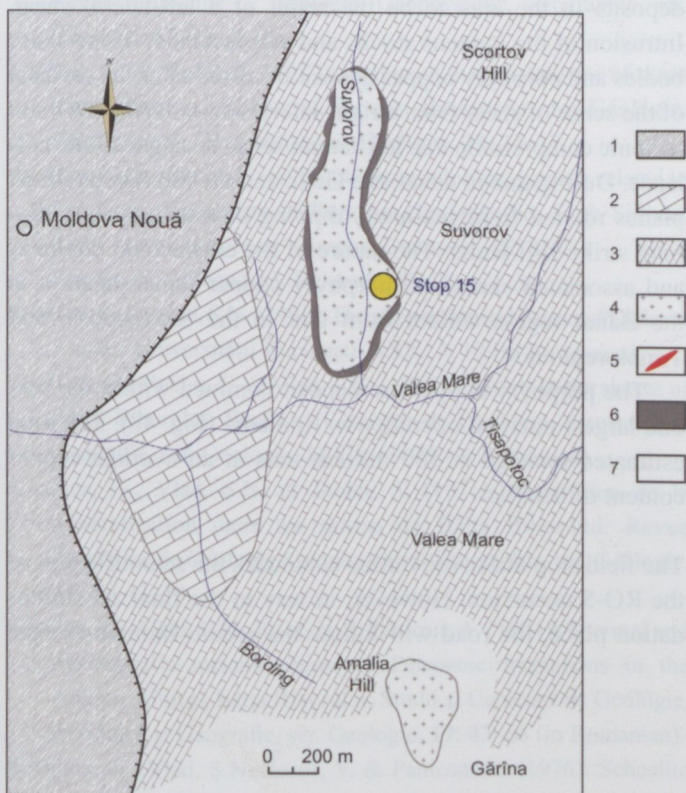
**Coordinates:** 44°44'28.37"N – 21°42'7.07"E, Elevation 289 m

The Suvorov porphyry copper ore deposit belongs to the southern most segment of the BMMB in Romania, characterized by N–S hypabyssal granodiorite and quartz diorite bodies with eastern vergence (Vlad, 1983). Surrounding sedimentary formations are represented by a comprehensive Jurassic sequence, dominated by Oxfordian–Tithonian limestones, and by Lower Cretaceous (Berriasian–Aptian) limestones and marls (Gheorghită, 1975) (Fig. 47). Contact metamorphism around banatitic bodies is extensive: recrystallized limestones, biotite-andalusite-actinolite or diopside-

biotite hornfels, garnet-diopside-vesuvianite and diopside-plagioclase endoskarns, wollastonite-garnet-pyroxene-chondrodite exoskarns, *etc.*

High-temperature, pervasive potassic hydrothermal alteration developed in the main granodiorite body, in Suvorov Valley. According to Vlad (1983) it may be ascribed to the “deuteric” late-magmatic domain and consists of biotite, orthoclase, quartz and apatite, either as veinlets or as global substitutions of the magmatic rock groundmass. Subsequent alteration is represented by chlorite developed on biotite, and a second generation of biotite developed on amphiboles. The potassic background is overlapped by phyllic alteration with quartz and illite (“sericite”), with subordinate amounts of chlorite. Local areas of intense silicification are widespread. Peripheral skarn aureoles are affected by propylitic alteration with epidote, chlorite and calcite. The three alteration types are amenable to the Lowell and Guilbert concentric model of porphyry copper hydrothermal alteration.

The mineralization consists of chalcopyrite, pyrite, magnetite with minor molybdenite, sphalerite and tetrahedrite and is differentiated against the host hydrothermal alteration. Potassic areas are associated with magnetite impregnations and subordinate chalcopyrite and pyrite. Propylitic alteration contains mainly magnetite disseminations with traces of chalcopyrite and pyrite. Phyllic areas are dominated by mineralized



**Fig. 47.** Geological map of Suvorov area, Moldova Nouă (redrawn after Gheorghită, 1975). 1) Crystalline schists (Bocșa Nappe, Supragetic unit); 2) Jurassic (detrital formations, limestones, marls); 3) Berriasian-Aptian (limestones, marls); 4) Upper Cretaceous – Paleocene: banatites (porphyritic granodiorites); 5) skarns; 6) Pleistocene (alluvial deposits).





Fig. 48. Panorama view of the porphyry-copper open pit at Suvorov, Moldova Nouă.

veinlets with pyrite, chalcopyrite  $\pm$  sphalerite, molybdenite or pyrite  $\pm$  tetrahedrite, with the later surrounded by impregnations of pyrite and chalcopyrite.

The upper parts of the porphyry complex host supergene transformation areas of up to 5-10 m thick, with kaolinite, illite, montmorillonite, copper carbonates and sulphates. Such environments provided the type locality for cyanotrichite  $\text{Cu}_4\text{Al}_2[(\text{OH})_{12}|\text{SO}_4] \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ .

Drew (2005) interprets the map patterns associated with the skarn bodies, granitoid stocks, and porphyry copper deposits in the area to be the result of a left-lateral shear. Intrusion of the igneous stocks and emplacement of the skarn bodies and porphyry copper deposit occurred after the reversal of the sense of shear from a right-lateral sense during the main tectonic compression to a left-lateral sense during tectonic collapse. During this reversal, the Getic and the Supragetic thrust planes rotated from shallowly dipping thrusts to steeply dipping strike-slip faults. The nature of the extensional duplexes and associated skarn and porphyry copper mineralization in the Banat region differs from that in the Srednogorie and Timok regions.

The porphyry copper ore deposit is mined within the second largest open pit operation in Romania (Fig. 48). The total estimated tonnage is 500 million tons at an average copper content of 0.35%.

The field stop at Suvorov mine concludes the scientific part of the RO-5 excursion. However, in way to the final accommodation place, the road will follow the scenic Danube Gorges

(Fig. 49) and will offer a complete transect of the Southern Carpathians.

#### Acknowledgements

The author is specially indebted to C. Ionescu, V. Hoeck, F. Koller, G. Papp, D. Pop, T. Weiszbürg and D. Topa for their kind support, understanding and infinite patience. Thanks are due to Mrs. M.R. Cîmpean and Mr. D. Ardelean for kindly helping in the preparation of the visit at Baita mine, to Mr. Iacob Chișărău for supporting the visit to Moldova Nouă open pit and to Mr. Gehrig Schultz and Mr. Dorin Dordea from "Prospecțiuni" S.A. for generously providing the terrain vehicles.



Fig. 49. The Danube Gorges.



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## Appendix 1. Minerals from occurrences visited during the field trip

(Minerals first described from these localities with **bold** lettering. Common rock forming minerals were omitted)

### Băița Bihor

aikinite	PbCuBiS <sub>3</sub>	fluorite	CaF <sub>2</sub>
aleksite	PbBi <sub>2</sub> Te <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	forsterite	MgSiO <sub>4</sub>
andradite	Ca <sub>3</sub> Fe <sup>3+</sup> (SiO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	galena	PbS
apophyllite-(KF)	KCa <sub>4</sub> (Si <sub>8</sub> O <sub>20</sub> )(F,OH)·8H <sub>2</sub> O	galenobismutite	PbBi <sub>2</sub> S <sub>4</sub>
aragonite	CaCO <sub>3</sub>	gersdorffite	NiAsS
aschamalmite	Pb <sub>6</sub> Bi <sub>2</sub> S <sub>9</sub>	glaukosphaerite	(Cu,Ni) <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>
aurichalcite	Zn <sub>5</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>6</sub>	goethite	FeO(OH)
azurite	Cu <sub>3</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>	gold	Au
benjaminite	(Ag,Cu) <sub>3</sub> (Bi,Pb) <sub>7</sub> S <sub>12</sub>	goslarite	ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O
berryite	Pb <sub>3</sub> (Ag,Cu) <sub>5</sub> Bi <sub>7</sub> S <sub>16</sub>	grossular	Ca <sub>3</sub> Al <sub>2</sub> (SiO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>
bismite	Bi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	hammarite	Pb <sub>2</sub> Cu <sub>2</sub> Bi <sub>4</sub> S <sub>9</sub>
bismuth	Bi	hemimorphite	Zn <sub>4</sub> (Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> )(OH) <sub>2</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O
bismuthinite	Bi <sub>2</sub> S <sub>3</sub>	hessite	Ag <sub>2</sub> Te
bismuthinite derivatives	Bi <sub>2</sub> S <sub>3</sub> – CuPbBiS <sub>3</sub>	heyrovskýite	Pb <sub>6</sub> Bi <sub>2</sub> S <sub>9</sub>
bornite	Cu <sub>5</sub> FeS <sub>4</sub>	hodrushite	Cu <sub>4</sub> Bi <sub>6</sub> S <sub>11</sub>
brochantite	Cu <sub>4</sub> (SO <sub>4</sub> )(OH) <sub>6</sub>	hörnseite	Mg <sub>3</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·8H <sub>2</sub> O
brucite	Mg(OH) <sub>2</sub>	hydromagnesite	Mg <sub>5</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O
boulangerite	Pb <sub>5</sub> Sb <sub>4</sub> S <sub>11</sub>	hydrotungstite	WO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O
bustamite	CaMn <sup>2+</sup> ·Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	hydrozincite	Zn <sub>5</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>6</sub>
calcite	CaCO <sub>3</sub>	<b>IMA2008-053</b>	<b>Cu<sub>7</sub>Pb<sub>27</sub>Bi<sub>25</sub>S<sub>68</sub></b>
caledonite	Cu <sub>2</sub> Pb <sub>5</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> )(SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> (OH) <sub>6</sub>	ingodite	Bi <sub>2</sub> TeS
cannizzarite	Pb <sub>4</sub> Bi <sub>6</sub> S <sub>13</sub>	joseite A	Bi <sub>4</sub> TeS <sub>2</sub>
carrollite	Cu(Co,Ni) <sub>2</sub> S <sub>4</sub>	joseite B	Bi <sub>4</sub> TeS
cervelleite	Ag <sub>4</sub> TeS	junoite	Cu <sub>2</sub> Pb <sub>3</sub> Bi <sub>8</sub> S <sub>16</sub>
cerussite	PbCO <sub>3</sub>	kotoite	Mg <sub>3</sub> (BO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>
chalcantite	CuSO <sub>4</sub> ·5H <sub>2</sub> O	kupčikite	Cu <sub>3,4</sub> Fe <sub>0,6</sub> Bi <sub>5</sub> S <sub>10</sub>
chalcocite	Cu <sub>2</sub> S	laumontite	CaAl <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>4</sub> O <sub>12</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O
chalcopyrite	CuFeS <sub>2</sub>	leadhillite	Pb <sub>4</sub> (SO <sub>4</sub> )(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>
chondrodite	Mg,Fe <sup>2+</sup> (SiO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (F,OH) <sub>2</sub>	lepidocrocite	Fe <sup>3+</sup> O(OH)
chrysocolla	(Cu,Al) <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> (OH) <sub>4</sub> ·nH <sub>2</sub> O	lillianite	Pb <sub>3-2x</sub> Ag <sub>x</sub> Bi <sub>2+x</sub> S <sub>6</sub>
chrysotile	Mg <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> (OH) <sub>4</sub>	linarite	PbCu(SO <sub>4</sub> )(OH) <sub>2</sub>
clinochlore	Mg <sub>6</sub> Si <sub>4</sub> O <sub>10</sub> (OH) <sub>8</sub>	lizardite	Mg <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> (OH) <sub>4</sub>
clinohumite	Mg <sub>9</sub> (SiO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> F <sub>2</sub>	ludwigite	Mg <sub>2</sub> Fe <sup>3+</sup> O <sub>2</sub> (BO <sub>3</sub> )
clinozoisite	Ca <sub>2</sub> Al <sub>3</sub> (Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> )(SiO <sub>4</sub> )O(OH)	luzonite	Cu <sub>3</sub> AsS <sub>4</sub>
corundum	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	magnesite	MgCO <sub>3</sub>
cosalite	Pb <sub>2</sub> Bi <sub>2</sub> S <sub>5</sub>	magnetite	Fe <sup>2+</sup> Fe <sup>3+</sup> O <sub>4</sub>
cobaltite	CoAsS	<b>makovickyite</b>	Cu <sub>1.12</sub> Ag <sub>0.81</sub> Pb <sub>0.27</sub> Bi <sub>5.35</sub> S <sub>9</sub>
copper	Cu	malachite	Cu <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>
covellite	CuS	maldonite	Au <sub>2</sub> Bi
crocoite	Pb(CrO <sub>4</sub> )	marcasite	FeS <sub>2</sub>
cubanite	CuFe <sub>2</sub> S <sub>3</sub>	maucherite	Ni <sub>11</sub> As <sub>8</sub>
cuprobismutite	Cu <sub>8</sub> AgBi <sub>13</sub> S <sub>24</sub>	meionite	3CaAl <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub> ·CaCO <sub>3</sub>
cupromakovickyite	Cu <sub>4</sub> AgPb <sub>2</sub> Bi <sub>9</sub> S <sub>18</sub>	miharaitite	PbCu <sub>4</sub> FeBiS <sub>6</sub>
digenite	Cu <sub>1,8</sub> S	mimetite	Pb <sub>5</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> Cl
diopside	CaMgSi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	molybdenite	MoS <sub>2</sub>
diophtase	CuSiO <sub>3</sub> ·H <sub>2</sub> O	natrolite	Na <sub>2</sub> Al <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O
djurleite	Cu <sub>31</sub> S <sub>16</sub>	nickeline	NiAs
dolomite	CaMg(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	norbergite	Mg <sub>3</sub> (SiO <sub>4</sub> )(F,OH) <sub>2</sub>
electrum	(Au,Ag)	norsethite	BaMg(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>
emphlectite	CuBiS <sub>2</sub>	<b>padëraite</b>	Cu <sub>7</sub> (Cu,Ag) <sub>0.33</sub> Pb <sub>1.33</sub> Bi <sub>11.33</sub> S <sub>22</sub>
epidote	Ca <sub>2</sub> Fe <sup>3+</sup> Al <sub>2</sub> (Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> )(SiO <sub>4</sub> )O(OH)	palygorskite	(Mg, Al) <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>4</sub> O <sub>10</sub> (OH)·4H <sub>2</sub> O
erythrite	Co <sub>3</sub> (AsO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·8H <sub>2</sub> O	pararammelsbergite	NiAs <sub>2</sub>
fletcherite	CuNi <sub>2</sub> S <sub>4</sub>	pekoite	PbCuBi <sub>11</sub> (S,Se) <sub>18</sub>
fluoborite	Mg <sub>3</sub> (BO <sub>3</sub> )F <sub>3</sub>	pseudomalachite	Cu <sub>5</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>4</sub>
		pyromorphite	Pb <sub>5</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> Cl



pyrophyllite	$\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
rosasite	$(\text{Cu},\text{Zn})_2(\text{CO}_3)(\text{OH})_2$
scawtite	$\text{Ca}_7(\text{Si}_3\text{O}_9)_2(\text{CO}_3) \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
scheelite	$\text{Ca}(\text{WO}_4)$
scolecite	$\text{Ca}(\text{Si}_3\text{Al}_2\text{O}_{10}) \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$
smithsonite	$\text{ZnCO}_3$
sphalerite	$\text{ZnS}$
suanite	$\text{Mg}_2(\text{B}_2\text{O}_5)$
<b>szaibélyite</b>	<b><math>\text{MgBO}_2(\text{OH})</math></b>
tetradymite	$\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_2\text{S}$
tetrahedrite	$\text{Cu}_{12}\text{Sb}_4\text{S}_{13}$
theisite	$\text{Cu}_5\text{Zn}_5(\text{AsO}_4)_2(\text{SbO}_4)_2(\text{OH})_7$
tremolite	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Mg}_5\text{Si}_8\text{O}_{22}(\text{OH})_2$
tyrolite	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Cu}_6(\text{AsO}_4)_4(\text{CO}_3)(\text{OH})_8 \cdot 11\text{H}_2\text{O}$
vesuvianite	$(\text{Ca},\text{Na})_{19}(\text{Al},\text{Mg},\text{Fe})_{13}(\text{SiO}_4)_{10}(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7)_4(\text{OH},\text{F})$
vikingite	$\text{Ag}_5\text{Pb}_8\text{Bi}_{13}\text{S}_{30}$
wittichenite	$\text{Cu}_3\text{BiS}_3$
wollastonite	$\text{CaSiO}_3$

### Pietroasa

andradite	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Fe}^{3+}_2(\text{SiO}_4)_3$
apophyllite-(KOH)	$\text{KC}_4\text{Al}_8\text{Si}_8\text{O}_{20}(\text{OH},\text{F}) \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$
brucite	$\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$
calcite	$\text{CaCO}_3$
chlorite group	
chondrodite	$(\text{Mg},\text{Fe}^{2+})_5(\text{SiO}_4)_2(\text{F},\text{OH})_2$
chrysotile	$\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$
clinochlore	$\text{Mg}_6\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_8$
diopside	$\text{CaMgSi}_2\text{O}_6$
dolomite	$\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$
dypingite	$\text{Mg}_5(\text{CO}_3)_4(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$
epidote	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{Al}_2(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7)(\text{SiO}_4)\text{O}(\text{OH})$
forsterite	$\text{Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4$
goethite	$\text{FeO}(\text{OH})$
grossular	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Al}_2(\text{SiO}_4)_3$
humite	$\text{Mg}_7(\text{SiO}_4)_3(\text{F},\text{OH})_2$
hydrotalcite	$\text{Mg}_6\text{Al}_2\text{CO}_3(\text{OH})_{16} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$
illite group	
kotoite	$\text{Mg}_3(\text{BO}_3)_2$
lepidocrocite	$\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{O}(\text{OH})$
lizardite	$\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$
ludwigite	$\text{Mg}_2\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{O}_2(\text{BO}_3)$
magnesioferrite	$\text{MgFe}^{3+}_2\text{O}_4$
magnesite	$\text{MgCO}_3$
magnetite	$\text{Fe}^{2+}\text{Fe}^{3+}_2\text{O}_4$
periclase	$\text{MgO}$
phlogopite	$\text{KMg}_3(\text{Si}_3\text{Al})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
pyrophyllite	$\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
scheelite	$\text{Ca}(\text{WO}_4)$
sepiolite	$\text{Mg}_4\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{15}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$
spinel	$\text{MgAl}_2\text{O}_4$
suanite	$\text{Mg}_2(\text{B}_2\text{O}_5)$
szaibélyite	$\text{MgBO}_2(\text{OH})$
talc	$\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
vesuvianite	$(\text{Ca},\text{Na})_{19}(\text{Al},\text{Mg},\text{Fe})_{13}(\text{SiO}_4)_{10}(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7)_4(\text{OH},\text{F},\text{O})_{10}$
wollastonite	$\text{CaSiO}_3$
zeolite group	

### Măgurea Vaței

åkermanite	$\text{Ca}_2\text{MgSi}_2\text{O}_7$
allophane	$\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3(\text{SiO}_2)_{1.3-2.0} \cdot 2.5-3.0\text{H}_2\text{O}$
aluminian diopside	$\text{CaMg}_{1-x}(\text{Al},\text{Fe}^{3+})_x\text{Si}_{2-x}\text{O}_6$
analcime	$\text{Na}(\text{Si}_2\text{Al})\text{O}_6 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$
andradite	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Fe}^{3+}_2(\text{SiO}_4)_3$
aragonite	$\text{CaCO}_3$
bicchulite	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Al}_2\text{SiO}_6(\text{OH})_2$
calcite	$\text{CaCO}_3$
CaTs clinopyroxene	$\text{CaAl}_2\text{SiO}_6$
cebolite	$\text{Ca}_2(\text{Mg},\text{Fe}^{2+},\text{Al})\text{Si}_2(\text{O},\text{OH})_7$
cuspidine	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7\text{F}_2$
djerfisherite	$\text{K}_6\text{NaFe}_{24}\text{S}_{26}\text{Cl}$
ellestadite	$\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{SiO}_4)_3(\text{SO}_4)_3(\text{OH},\text{F})_2$
esseneite	$\text{CaFe}^{3+}\text{AlSiO}_6$
foshagite	$\text{Ca}_4(\text{SiO}_3)_3(\text{OH})_2$
gehlenite	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Al}(\text{SiAl})\text{O}_7$
gismondine	$\text{Ca}_2(\text{Si}_4\text{Al}_4)\text{O}_{16} \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$
grossular	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Al}_2(\text{SiO}_4)_3$
hibschite	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Al}_2(\text{SiO}_4)_{3-x}(\text{OH})_{4x}$
hydroxyllestadite	$\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{SiO}_4)_3(\text{SO}_4)_3(\text{OH})_2$
kalsilite	$\text{KAlSiO}_4$
kamaishilite	$\text{Ca}_2(\text{SiAl}_2)\text{O}_6(\text{OH})_2$
melilite	$\text{Al}_2\text{C}_6(\text{COO})_6 \cdot 16\text{H}_2\text{O}$
monticellite	$\text{CaMgSiO}_4$
mountainite	$\text{KNa}_2\text{Ca}_2[\text{Si}_8\text{O}_{19}(\text{OH})] \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$
pectolite	$\text{NaCa}_2\text{Si}_3\text{O}_8(\text{OH})$
perovskite	$\text{CaTiO}_3$
plombierite	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{16}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$
prehnite	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Al}(\text{Si}_3\text{Al})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
rankinite	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7$
riversideite	$\text{Ca}_5\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{16}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
scawtite	$\text{Ca}_7(\text{Si}_3\text{O}_9)_2(\text{CO}_3) \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
spinel	$\text{MgAl}_2\text{O}_4$
spurrite	$\text{Ca}_5(\text{SiO}_4)_2(\text{CO}_3)$
thomsonite	$\text{NaCa}_2(\text{Al}_5\text{Si}_5)\text{O}_{20} \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$
tilleyite	$\text{Ca}_5\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7(\text{CO}_3)_2$
titanian garnet	$\text{Ca}_3(\text{Fe}^{3+},\text{Al},\text{Ti})_2(\text{Si},\text{Al},\text{Fe}^{3+})_3\text{O}_{12}$
tobermorite	$\text{Ca}_5\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{16}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$
vesuvianite	$(\text{Ca},\text{Na})_{19}(\text{Al},\text{Mg},\text{Fe})_{13}(\text{SiO}_4)_{10}(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7)_4(\text{OH},\text{F},\text{O})_{10}$
wollastonite	$\text{CaSiO}_3$
xonotlite	$\text{Ca}_6\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{17}(\text{OH})_2$

### Ocna de Fier – Dognecea

actinolite	$\text{Ca}_2(\text{Mg},\text{Fe}^{2+})_5\text{Si}_8\text{O}_{22}(\text{OH})_2$
aikinite	$\text{CuPbBiS}_3$
andalusite	$\text{Al}_2\text{OSiO}_4$
andradite	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Fe}^{3+}_2(\text{SiO}_4)_3$
anglesite	$\text{PbSO}_4$
ankerite	$\text{CaFe}^{2+}(\text{CO}_3)_2$
antigorite	$\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$
apatite	$\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3\text{F}$
aragonite	$\text{CaCO}_3$
arsenopyrite	$\text{FeAsS}$
aurichalcite	$\text{Zn}_5(\text{CO}_3)_2(\text{OH})_6$
azurite	$\text{Cu}_3(\text{CO}_3)_2(\text{OH})_2$
baryte	$\text{BaSO}_4$
bismuth	$\text{Bi}$
bismuthinite	$\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_3$
bismuthinite derivatives	$\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_3\text{--CuPbBiS}_3$



bismutite	$\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_2(\text{CO}_3)$	makovickyite	$\text{Cu}_{1.12}\text{Ag}_{0.81}\text{Pb}_{0.27}\text{Bi}_{5.35}\text{S}_9$
bohdanowiczite	$\text{AgBiSe}_2$	malachite	$\text{Cu}_2\text{CO}_3(\text{OH})_2$
bornite	$\text{Cu}_5\text{FeS}_4$	manganilvaite	$\text{CaFe}^{2+}\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{Mn}^{2+}(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7)\text{O}(\text{OH})$
brochantite	$\text{Cu}_4\text{SO}_4(\text{OH})_6$	manjiroite	$\text{Na}(\text{Mn}^{4+}, \text{Mn}^{2+})_8\text{O}_{16} \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$
brucite	$\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$	marcasite	$\text{FeS}_2$
calcite	$\text{CaCO}_3$	matildite	$\text{AgBiS}_2$
carrollite	$\text{CuCo}_2\text{S}_4$	mawsonite	$\text{Cu}_6\text{Fe}_2\text{SnS}_8$
cerussite	$\text{PbCO}_3$	molybdenite	$\text{MoS}_2$
chalcocite	$\text{Cu}_2\text{S}$	neyite	$\text{Ag}_2\text{Cu}_6\text{Pb}_{25}\text{Bi}_{26}\text{S}_{68}$
chalcopyrite	$\text{CuFeS}_2$	nuffieldite	$\text{Cu}_{1.4}\text{Pb}_{2.4}\text{Bi}_{2.4}\text{Sb}_{0.2}\text{S}_7$
chrysotile	$\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$	padëraite	$\text{Cu}_7(\text{Cu}, \text{Ag})_{0.33}\text{Pb}_{1.33}\text{Bi}_{11.33}\text{S}_{22}$
clinochlore	$\text{Mg}_6\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_8$	palygorskite	$(\text{Mg}, \text{Al})_2\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH}) \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$
clinohumite	$\text{Mg}_9(\text{SiO}_4)_4\text{F}_2$	phlogopite	$\text{KMg}_3(\text{Si}_3\text{Al})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
clinozoisite	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Al}_3(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7)(\text{SiO}_4)\text{O}(\text{OH})$	pseudomalachite	$\text{Cu}_4(\text{PO}_4)_2(\text{OH})_4$
cobaltpentlandite	$\text{Co}_9\text{S}_8$	pyrite	$\text{FeS}_2$
copper	$\text{Cu}$	pyroaurite	$\text{Mg}_6\text{Fe}^{3+}_2\text{CO}_3(\text{OH})_{16} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$
cordierite	$\text{Mg}_2\text{Al}_4\text{Si}_5\text{O}_{18}$	pyrolusite	$\text{MnO}_2$
corundum	$\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$	pyrrhotite	$\text{Fe}_7\text{S}_8$
cosalite	$\text{Pb}_2\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_5$	rhodochrosite	$\text{MnCO}_3$
covellite	$\text{CuS}$	rhodonite	$\text{Mn}^{2+}\text{SiO}_3$
cuprite	$\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$	siderite	$\text{FeCO}_3$
cuprobismutite	$\text{Cu}_8\text{AgBi}_{13}\text{S}_{24}$	silver	$\text{Ag}$
cupromakovickyite	$\text{Cu}_4\text{AgPb}_2\text{Bi}_9\text{S}_{18}$	sphalerite	$\text{ZnS}$
digenite	$\text{Cu}_{1.8}\text{S}$	stibnite	$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$
diopside	$\text{CaMgSi}_2\text{O}_6$	szaibélyite	$\text{MgBO}_2(\text{OH})$
dolomite	$\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$	tetradymite	$\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_2\text{S}$
electrum	$(\text{Au}, \text{Ag})$	tetrahedrite	$\text{Cu}_{12}\text{Sb}_4\text{S}_{13}$
emphelctite	$\text{CuBiS}_2$	todorokite	$(\text{Na}, \text{Ca}, \text{K}, \text{Ba}, \text{Sr})_{1-x}(\text{Mn}, \text{Mg}, \text{Al})_6\text{O}_{12} \cdot 3-4\text{H}_2\text{O}$
epidote	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{Al}_2(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7)(\text{SiO}_4)\text{O}(\text{OH})$	tourmaline group	
eulytine	$\text{Bi}_4(\text{SiO}_4)_3$	tremolite	$\text{Ca}_2\text{Mg}_5\text{Si}_8\text{O}_{22}(\text{OH})_2$
felbertalite	$\text{Cu}_2\text{Pb}_6\text{Bi}_8\text{S}_{19}$	valeriite	$2[(\text{Fe}, \text{Cu})\text{S}] \cdot 1.53[(\text{Mg}, \text{Al})(\text{OH})_2]$
fluorite	$\text{CaF}_2$	vesuvianite	$(\text{Ca}, \text{Na})_{19}(\text{Al}, \text{Mg}, \text{Fe})_{13}(\text{SiO}_4)_{10}(\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7)_4(\text{OH}, \text{F}, \text{O})_{10}$
forsterite	$\text{Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4$	<b>veszelyite</b>	<b><math>\text{Cu}_3^+\text{PO}_4(\text{OH})_3 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}</math></b>
friedrichite	$\text{Cu}_5\text{Pb}_3\text{Bi}_7\text{S}_{18}$	volynskite	$\text{AgBiTe}_2$
galena	$\text{PbS}$	wittichenite	$\text{Cu}_3\text{BiS}_3$
galenobismutite	$\text{PbBi}_2\text{S}_4$	wollastonite	$\text{CaSiO}_3$
gladite	$\text{CuPbBi}_5\text{S}_9$		
goethite	$\text{FeO}(\text{OH})$		
gold	$\text{Au}$		
greenockite	$\text{CdS}$		
grossular	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Al}_2(\text{SiO}_4)_3$		
gypsum	$\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$		
hedenbergite	$\text{CaFe}^{2+}\text{Si}_2\text{O}_6$		
hedleyite	$\text{Bi}_7\text{Te}_3$		
hematite	$\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$		
hemimorphite	$\text{Zn}_4\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7(\text{OH})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$		
hessite	$\text{Ag}_2\text{Te}$		
heyrovskýite	$\text{Pb}_6\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_9$		
hodrushite	$\text{Cu}_4\text{Bi}_6\text{S}_{11}$		
jamesonite	$\text{Pb}_4\text{FeSb}_6\text{S}_{14}$		
kaolinite	$\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$		
kawazulite	$\text{Bi}_2(\text{Te}, \text{Se}, \text{S})_3$		
krupkaite	$\text{PbCuBi}_3\text{S}_6$		
lepidocrocite	$\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{O}(\text{OH})$		
lillianite	$\text{Pb}_{3-2x}\text{Ag}_x\text{Bi}_{2+x}\text{S}_6$		
lindströmite	$\text{Pb}_3\text{Cu}_3\text{Bi}_7\text{S}_{15}$		
linnaeite	$\text{Co}_3\text{S}_4$		
lizardite	$\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$		
<b>ludwigite</b>	<b><math>\text{Mg}_2\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{O}_2(\text{BO}_3)</math></b>		
magensioferrite	$\text{MgFe}_2^{3+}\text{O}_4$		
magnetite	$\text{Fe}^{2+}\text{Fe}_2^{3+}\text{O}_4$		

**Oravița – Ciclova**

afwiliite	$\text{Ca}_3(\text{SiO}_3)_2(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
<b>aloclase</b>	<b><math>\text{CoAsS}</math></b>
allophane	$\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3(\text{SiO}_2)_{1.3-2.0} \cdot 2.5-3.0\text{H}_2\text{O}$
analcime	$\text{Na}(\text{Si}_2\text{Al})\text{O}_6 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$
andradite	$\text{Ca}_3\text{Fe}_2^{3+}(\text{SiO}_4)_3$
apophyllite	$\text{KC}_4\text{Si}_8\text{O}_{20}\text{F} \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$
arsenopyrite	$\text{FeAsS}$
aurichalcite	$\text{Zn}_3(\text{CO}_3)_2(\text{OH})_6$
azurite	$\text{Cu}_3(\text{CO}_3)_2(\text{OH})_2$
baryte	$\text{BaSO}_4$
bismite	$\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3$
bismuth	$\text{Bi}$
bismuthinite	
derivatives	$\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_3 - \text{CuPbBiS}_3$
bornite	$\text{Cu}_5\text{FeS}_4$
calcite	$\text{CaCO}_3$
cannizzarite	$\text{Pb}_8\text{Bi}_{10}\text{S}_{23}$
chalcocite	$\text{Cu}_2\text{S}$
chalcopyrite	$\text{CuFeS}_2$
chondrodite	$(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe}^{2+})_5(\text{SiO}_4)_2(\text{F}, \text{OH})_2$
chrysotile	$\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$
clinochlore	$\text{Mg}_6\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_8$



Moldova Nouă



“limonite”	$\text{FeO}(\text{OH}) \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$	sepiolite	$\text{Mg}_4\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{15}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$
ludwigite	$\text{Mg}_2\text{Fe}^{3+}\text{O}_2(\text{BO}_3)$	smithsonite	$\text{ZnCO}_3$
magnetite	$\text{Fe}^{2+}\text{Fe}^{3+}_2\text{O}_4$	sphalerite	$\text{ZnS}$
malachite	$\text{Cu}_2\text{CO}_3(\text{OH})_2$	stevensite	$(\text{Ca}, \text{Na})_2\text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
marcasite	$\text{FeS}_2$	stilbite-Ca	$\text{NaCa}_4(\text{Si}_{27}\text{Al}_9)\text{O}_{72} \cdot 28\text{H}_2\text{O}$
melanterite	$\text{Fe}^{2+}\text{SO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$	susannite	$\text{Pb}_4(\text{SO}_4)(\text{CO}_3)_2(\text{OH})_2$
molybdenite	$\text{MoS}_2$	tenorite	$\text{CuO}$
montmorillonite	$(\text{Na}, \text{Ca})_{0.3}(\text{Al}, \text{Mg})_2\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$	tetradymite	$\text{Bi}_2\text{Te}_2\text{S}$
orpiment	$\text{As}_2\text{S}_3$	tetrahedrite	$\text{Cu}_{12}\text{Sb}_4\text{S}_{13}$
pyrite	$\text{FeS}_2$	thomsonite-Ca	$\text{NaCa}_2(\text{Al}_5\text{Si}_5)\text{O}_{20} \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$
pyrrhotite	$\text{Fe}_7\text{S}_8$	vivianite	$\text{Fe}^{2+}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$
realgar	$\text{AsS}$	wollastonite	$\text{CaSiO}_3$

## Appendix 2. – Itinerary for IMA2010 RO5 Field trip

### Saturday, August 28, 2010 (Day 1) – total distance 388 km

- 08.00–12.00 Travel from Budapest to Beiuș (via Albertirsa, Szolnok, Ártánd, Oradea)  
 12.00–13.00 Lunch break in Beiuș  
 13.30–14.30 Brief presentation of Băița Bihor mine at S.C. Băița HQ in Ștei  
 15.00–19.00 Field stop 1: Skarns and mineralization at Băița Bihor  
 19.00–19.30 Travel to Beiuș  
 Dinner and accommodation in Beiuș

### Sunday, August 29, 2010 (Day 2) – total distance 329 km

- 08.00–08.45 Travel to Pietroasa  
 08.45–09.30 Field stop 2: Magnesian borates in the skarns of Dealul Gruifului – Pietroasa  
 9.30–11.00 Travel to Măgurea Vaței  
 11.00–12.30 Field stop 3: High-temperature calcic skarns at Cornet Hill and Cerboaia Valley (Măgurea Vaței area)  
 12.30–13.00 Travel to Brad  
 13.00–14.00 Lunch break in Brad  
 14.00–15.00 Field stop 4: The Museum of Gold, Brad  
 15.00–16.30 Travel to Sântămăria Orlea  
 16.30–17.00 Field stop 5: St. Mary's church, 13<sup>th</sup> century - Sântămăria Orlea  
 17.00–17.30 Travel to Densuș  
 17.30–18.00 Field stop 6: Densuș Church – 13<sup>th</sup> century  
 18.00–18.30 Travel to Sarmizegetusa  
 18.30–19.00 Field stop 7: Ulpia Traiana Sarmizegetusa – the Roman capital city of Dacia, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> centuries  
 19.00–21.00 Travel to Bocșa  
 Dinner and accommodation in Bocșa

### Monday, August 30, 2010 (Day 3)– total distance 45 km

- 08.00–08.15 Travel to banatite outcrop in Bocșa  
 08.15 – 08.45 Field stop 8: Banatite outcrop, Bocșa  
 08.45 – 09.00 Travel to Ocna de Fier  
 09.00–10.30 Field stop 9: Gruescu mineralogical collection, Ocna de Fier  
 10.30–12.00 Field stop 10: The skarn deposit at Ocna de Fier. Ursoanea waste dump  
 12.00–12.10 Travel to Bocșa





- 12.30–13.30 Lunch break in Bocşa  
13.30–14.00 Travel to Ocna de Fier  
14.00–15.00 Field stop 11: The skarn deposit at Ocna de Fier. Terezia quarry  
15.00–16.00 Walk to Iuliana quarry  
16.00–17.30 Field stop 12: The skarn deposit at Ocna de Fier. Iuliana quarry  
17.30–18.30 Walk back to Ocna de Fier and travel to Bocşa  
Dinner and accommodation in Bocşa

**Tuesday, August 31, 2010 (Day 4) –total distance 215 km**

- 08.00–09.30 Travel to Oraviţa  
09.30–10.30 Field stop 13: The skarn occurrence in Ogaşul Crişenilor Oraviţa  
10.30–11.00 Travel to Ciclova  
11.00–12.30 Field stop 14: The skarns and banatites in Țiganilor Valley, Ciclova  
12.30–13.30 Travel to Moldova Nouă  
13.30–14.30 Field stop 15: The porphyry copper ore deposit at Suvorov, Moldova Nouă  
14.30–17.00 Travel to Eşelniţa. Sightseeing and geological transect across Danube Gorges  
Farewell dinner and accommodation in Eşelniţa

**Wednesday, September 1, 2010 (Day 5) – total distance 517 km**

- 8.00–17.00 Travel to Budapest.

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## USEFUL NOTES

more than 4 printed pages less than 10 pages, including figures and tables, were less than 4 pages excluding figures and tables.

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sources, current research reports, or previously published work; and include references to other relevant literature.

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functioning as a review article, rather than as a primary report of original research.

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USEFUL NOTES

13.30-14.00 Travel to Oca de Fier

14.00-15.00 Fossil site 12 The Permian boundary Oca de Fier

15.00-16.00 Walk to Juliana quarry

16.00-17.30 Fossil site 12 The Permian boundary Oca de Fier

17.30-18.30 Walk back to Oca de Fier and travel to Buzos

Dinner and travel to Buzos

Tuesday, August 31, 2010 (Day 4) - total distance 215 km

08.00-09.30 Travel to Chavira

09.30-10.30 Fossil site 12 The Permian boundary Oca de Fier

10.30-11.00 Travel to Cacho

11.00-12.30 Fossil site 12 The Permian boundary Oca de Fier

12.30-13.30 Travel to Mogrove Nudo

13.30-14.30 Fossil site 12 The Permian boundary Oca de Fier

14.30-17.00 Travel to Esquina, Sigüenza and geological museum near Durango

Fossil site 12 The Permian boundary Oca de Fier

Wednesday, September 1, 2010 (Day 5) - total distance 517 km

8.00-17.00 Travel to Badajoz





# INSTRUCTIONS FOR AUTHORS

## GENERAL

Acta Mineralogica-Petrographica (AMP) publishes articles (papers longer than 4 printed pages but shorter than 16 pages, including figures and tables), notes (not longer than 4 pages, including figures and tables), and short communications (book reviews, short scientific notices, current research projects, comments on formerly published papers, and necrologies of 1 printed page) dealing with crystallography, mineralogy, ore deposits, petrology, volcanology, geochemistry and other applied topics related to the environment and archaeometry. Articles longer than the given extent can be published only with the prior agreement of the editorial board.

In the form of two subseries, AMP publishes materials of conferences (AMP Abstract Series) and field guides (AMP Field Guide Series), or, occasionally supplement issues related to other scientific events.

The journal accepts papers that represent new and original scientific results, which have not appeared elsewhere before, and are not in press either.

All articles and notes submitted to AMP are reviewed by two referees (short communications will be reviewed only by one referee) and are normally published in the order of acceptance, however, higher priority may be given to Hungarian researches and results coming from the Alpine-Carpathian-Dinaric region. Of course, the editorial board does accept papers dealing with other regions as well, let them be compiled either by Hungarian or foreign authors.

The manuscripts (prepared in harmony of the instructions below) must be submitted to the Editorial Office in triplicate. All pages must carry the author's name, and must be numbered. At this stage (revision), original illustrations and photographs are not required, though, quality copies are needed. It is favourable, if printable manuscripts are sent on disk, as well. In these cases the use of Microsoft Word or any other IBM compatible editing programmes is suggested.

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The title has to be short and informative. No subtitles if possible. If the main title is too long, an additional shortened title is needed for the running head.

### Author

The front page has to carry (under the main title) the full name(s) (forename, surname), affiliation(s), current address(es), e-mail address(es) of the author(s).

### Abstract and keywords

The abstract is required to be brief (max. 250 words), and has to highlight the aims and the results of the article. The abstracts of notes are alike (but max. 120 words). As far as possible, citations have to be avoided.

The abstract has to be followed by 4 to 10 keywords.

### Text and citations

The format of the manuscripts is required to be: double-spacing (same for the abstract), text only on one side of the page, size 12 Times New Roman fonts. Margin width is 2.5 cm, except the left margin, which has to be 3.5 cm wide. Underlines and highlights ought not to be used. Please avoid the use of foot and end notes. Accents of Romanian, Slovakian, Czech, Croatian etc. characters must be marked on the manuscript clearly.

When compiling the paper an Introduction – Geological setting – Materials and Methods – Results – Conclusions structure is suggested.

The form of citations is: the author's surname followed by the date of publication e.g. (Szederkényi, 1996). In case of two authors: (Rosso and Bodnar, 1995) If there are more than two authors, after the first name the co-authors must be denoted as "et al.", e.g. (Roser et al., 1980).

## REFERENCES

The reference list can only consist of published papers, M.Sc., Ph.D. and D.Sc. theses, and papers in press.

Only works cited previously in the text can be put in the reference list. Examples:

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Upton, B.G.J., Emeleus, C.H. (1987): Mid-Proterozoic alkaline magmatism in southern Greenland: the Gardar province. In: Fitton, J.G., Upton, B.G.J. (eds.): Alkaline Igneous Rocks. Blackwell, Edinburgh, 449–472.

Rosso, K.M., Bodnar, R.J. (1995): Microthermometric and Raman spectroscopic detection limits of CO<sub>2</sub> in fluid inclusions and the Raman spectroscopic characterization of CO<sub>2</sub>. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **59**, 3961–3975.

Szederkényi, T. (1996): Metamorphic formations and their correlation in the Hungarian part of Tisia Megaunit (Tisia Megaunit Terrane). *Acta Mineralogica-Petrographica*, **37**, 143–160.

Bakker, R.J. (2002): <http://www.unileoben.ac.at/~buero62/minpet/Ronald/Programs/Computer.html>. Accessed: June 15, 2003.

The full titles of journals ought to be given. In case more works of the same author are published in the same year, then these has to be differentiated by using a, b, etc. after the date.

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Finally, each figure, map, photograph, drawing, table has to be attached in three copies, they must be numbered and carry the name of the author on their reverse. All the illustrations ought to be printed on separate sheets, captions as well if possible. Foldout tables and maps are not accepted. In case an illustration is not presented in digital form then one of the copies has to be submitted as glossy photographic print suitable for direct reproduction. Photographs must be clear and sharp. The other two copies of the illustrations can be quality reproductions. Coloured figure, map or photograph can only be published at the expense of the author(s).

The width of the illustrations can be 56, 87, 118, or 180 mm. The maximum height is 240 mm (with caption).

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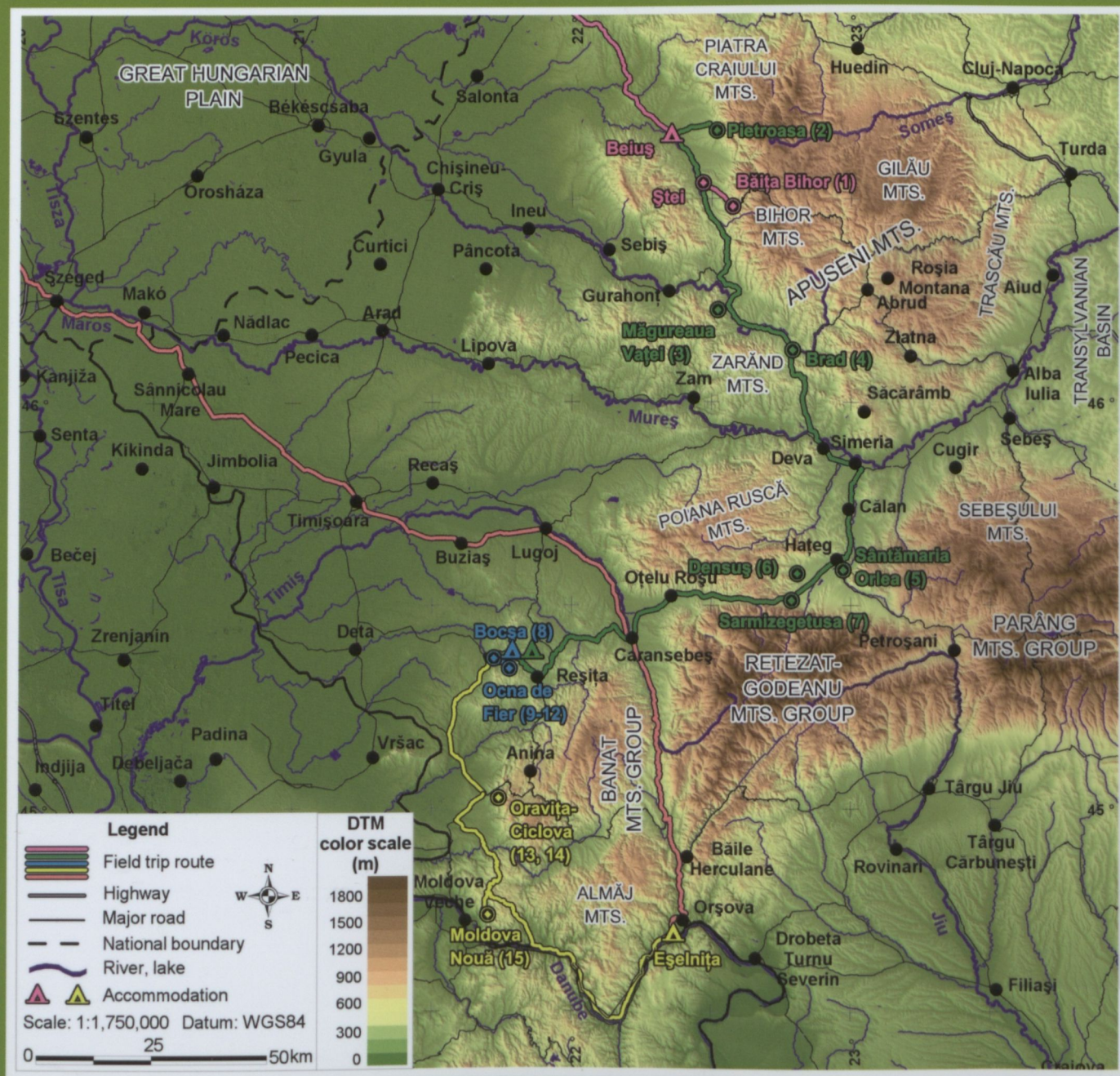
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